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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY



VOLUME IX · JULY 1939 · NUMBER 3  
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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

*Volume IX*

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## PUBLIC LIBRARY PROVISION OF BOOKS ABOUT SOCIAL PROBLEMS

LOWELL MARTIN

WHILE argument continues to center about the quality versus quantity and the education versus recreation theories of public library service, it is a rare critic who challenges the statement that one of the objectives of the library should be to provide and circulate reading materials about current political, economic, and social problems. This is the common ground on which controversy ceases and agreement begins. As an agency of a political system founded upon the assumption that enlightened men are able to govern themselves, the public library has a primary responsibility for providing print which contributes to that enlightenment.

We are therefore justified, in an evaluation of one phase of the institution, in asking this question: To what extent does the public library act as a center for the dissemination of print about issues of current political, economic, and social importance? Various analyses of library circulation, based on data gathered in such widely differing communities as the Fordham district in New York City, an industrial section in Chicago, and a typical community in St. Louis, have found that only a relatively minor portion of the reading in the agencies investigated relates to this important subject field. Ellsworth found that

1.2 per cent of public library book circulation in South Chicago was in material about social problems and that the same proportion applied in St. Louis.<sup>1</sup> A study was therefore proposed which has as its purpose a survey of the accessibility and use of books about social problems through the agency of the public library.

Consideration of the place of the library in the dissemination of social-problem material breaks down into two specific questions: (1) to what extent are such books made available in the public library? and (2) to what extent are they read? Only the first question is discussed in the present paper; findings relative to the circulation of these books will form the basis of a future report. Expanding the present problem—that of the extent to which social-problem books are provided by the public library—into operational terms, we can identify three distinct steps necessary to its solution. First, a list of books about social problems, limited as to subject matter, quality of presentation, and period of publication, and possessing reliability, validity, and practicality, must be compiled. Second, this measuring list must be applied to a representative group of libraries. Finally, the findings must be interpreted, reasons for variations advanced, and likely future lanes of investigation indicated.

#### THE MEASURING LIST

The social problems which are included in the measuring list classify under the following eight headings: "Government," "Economic systems," "Minority groups," "Labor and unemployment," "International issues," "War and peace," "Crime and law enforcement," and "Education." The subject matter covered by each heading is self-evident except, perhaps, in the case of "Labor and unemployment," which was interpreted as including problems of labor organization, problems of unemployment and relief, poverty, and housing. These eight groups do not exhaust the problems confronting society today, but they do represent the subjects about which books are currently being published in some volume.

<sup>1</sup> R. E. Ellsworth, "The distribution of books and magazines in selected communities" (unpublished MS, Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1937), p. 30.

The list is composed of titles published in 1934, 1935, and 1936. A span of three years was found to be a period which supplied a sufficient number of books to make the list representative but not so many as to render it impractical in length. The period from 1934 to 1936 was chosen because these years are sufficiently recent to increase the chance of libraries having purchased the books with the moderate increase in book funds in recent years and yet not so recent as to render too difficult a critical evaluation of the period's publications.

The type of material included on the list was, of necessity, limited by the objectives of the public library. Thus scholarly and research materials were excluded from the list because public libraries have only a limited responsibility for supplying them. Similarly, recent textbooks in the social field may not be purchased by public libraries which already possess an adequate collection of formal treatments. Applying these limitations, we are still left, however, with a profusion of social-problem titles, some good, and many of doubtful value. The problem of gleaning the wheat from the chaff confronts us with a fundamental question in book selection—namely, criteria of quality.

Criteria of quality are formulated by either of two methods. The more common method is to ask what a good book should be, to grope toward a set of standards based on a theoretical, abstract ideal. Such a procedure has little practical value without a limitation of the subject field, for the ideal volume of poetry has qualities different from the ideal treatise on thermodynamics. Standards based upon this method have two disadvantages. First, the statements of criteria gained from an abstract ideal tend to be vague and obscure, for the words used in describing such a concept are necessarily ambiguous, having an individual meaning to each selector. Second, when selection is attempted by means of abstract standards, compromises must be made in their practical application; individual variations in willingness to compromise may well nullify the value of the ideal as a standard. The second general method for the formulation of criteria of quality is to ask what characteristics outstanding books actually have. The distinction between the two methods is that between

what should be and what is. This procedure, like the first, leads to sweeping and indefinite criteria unless limited to a single subject field. Applied to a specific type of literature, it provides definite statements of quality which can be used more as minimum conditions than as an unattainable model.

The standards applied in the present selection were formulated by means of an analysis of four publications in the subject field which are outstanding in the nature of their content and the clarity of its treatment. These four books, concerning which there can be little question of quality and significance, are *The nature of the judicial process*, *The good society*, *The folklore of capitalism*, and *The coming struggle for power*. Working thus from the proven product rather than groping toward an abstract ideal the following criteria were formulated:

1. Is the book a contribution to the understanding of its subject?
2. Does it have accuracy of fact?
3. Does it have vitality of presentation?
4. Does it have sincerity of treatment?
5. Does it have poise and sanity in treatment?
6. Does it have effective organization of material?
7. Is it free from excessive bias that leads to gross misrepresentation and excessive selectivity of facts?

Two selectors,<sup>2</sup> working independently, applied these criteria to the publications about social problems listed in the *Book review digest*. This source was chosen because of its relative inclusiveness as compared with various library book-selection aids and because it provides critical opinions which permit the application of the formulated criteria. In most cases the selectors did not evaluate the books personally, believing that this would only add another opinion to a number equally valuable. No attempt was made to keep within the Dewey Decimal 300 class. Ninety titles were agreed upon as first choice by the two selectors, and 160 appeared as first choice on one list and second choice on the other. These 250 titles comprise the measuring instrument.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup> The author is indebted to Harold L. Boisen, of the University of Chicago, for his collaboration both in compiling the list and in checking it against library holdings.

<sup>3</sup> Copies of the list are available on application to the author.

In that the criteria were used as minimum conditions, a range of quality resulted among the titles chosen—from those that had difficulty in attaining the conditions to those that clearly surpassed them. The two selectors were in doubt and disagreement about the following:

- Asch, *The War goes on*
- Briffault, *Europa: the days of ignorance*
- Duranty, *I write as I please*
- Gunther, *Inside Europe*
- Robinson, *Science versus crime*

The extent to which "accuracy of fact," "poise and sanity of treatment," and "an understanding of the subject" are attained in a book which is primarily a personal biography, or in a book built around a dominant fiction theme, is a moot point. These books did manage to pass three increasingly severe applications of rigid criteria—and promptly proved to be among the most accessible; three of the five titles were among the seven books held by three-quarters or more of the libraries checked.

The substance of the list contains titles of evident significance and proven quality which clearly contribute to the objectives of the public library. Examples of these are the following titles:

- Angell, *Peace and the plain man*
- Burns, *Toward social security*
- Childs, *Sweden: the middle way*
- Corey, *The decline of American capitalism*
- Gilfillan, *I went to Pit College*
- Hutchins, *The higher learning in America*
- Kallen, *Decline and rise of the consumer*
- Laski, *The state in theory and practice*
- Millis, *Road to war*
- Smith, *The promise of American politics*

A very few of the titles on the list are of a near scholarly nature and were included purposely to note the public library accessibility of material of this type. The following five titles were added only after a careful consideration of content and readability:

- Cairns, *Law and the social sciences*
- Fainsod, *International socialism and the World War*



Knight, *Ethics of competition*

MacCracken, *Value theory and business cycles*

Wiltse, *The Jeffersonian tradition in American democracy*

The question of the value of such a list may well be examined briefly at this point. Certain queries no doubt occur to the critical reader. What obligation has any particular library to possess all these titles or any definite proportion of them? If the list fits any one library, how can it fit another serving a different reading public? Is no credit to be granted a library which possesses titles almost equal to those on the list? In view of the fact that all of the 250 titles are not equally significant, what credit is to be given a library which possesses the "best" of these better books?

It is granted that the list used here is composed of units of unequal value. The range of significance, however, is small as compared with typical standard lists, for the subject field was limited and each book passed a severe quality evaluation. This range of value, which is characteristic of such lists, is not necessarily a weakness, however, for it provides a flexibility that permits relatively accurate measurement of varying libraries serving contrasting publics. Such a list includes the "best" books—within the subject field—for differing libraries.

More fundamental, as an answer to doubts concerning the value of carefully constructed book lists as measuring instruments, is a consideration of the use to which they are put. If such a list were to be used as an absolute standard, setting 50 per cent or 75 per cent of the titles, or any arbitrary number, as the part of the list which a "good" library should possess, the critic could justifiably ask by what authority the peremptory yardstick had been established. Each library has its own absolute standard, determined by its individual objectives and unique service area. Furthermore, used in this fashion, the list must fall before the weighty argument that libraries possessing titles of almost equal significance would gain no credit from them.

However, if such a list is not offered as an absolute standard (desirable as such a standard is) by which to pass judgment on a

single institution, but is used rather as a means for determining patterns of holdings among a group of libraries, then we need only ask if it is reliable, in the sense that a different list, based on the same criteria, would give similar general results. The possible reliability of such measures and the immediate value of the present list can be demonstrated. The list was split into two portions, each composed of alternate items on the original alphabetical list. Each of these two shorter standards, used separately, was found to place the same libraries highest, the same libraries in a middle position, and the same libraries lowest. Similarly, each list—the eighty titles designated as first choice by one selector, and the eighty designated as first choice by the second selector—ranks the libraries almost exactly the same when used separately. Setting aside absolute standards, approximately the same conclusions could have been reached by the use of either of these “biased” sections of the actual measure. We can therefore conclude that other lists, chosen by means of the criteria previously outlined, would lead to findings very similar to those of the present study.

#### THE LIBRARIES STUDIED

Numerous considerations led logically to using the Chicago Public Library as a starting-point: the Chicago branch system includes 44 units,<sup>4</sup> a wide range of holdings among the branches appeared probable from previous studies, and materials were at hand with which to attempt an explanation of these differences. While this selection of a representative sample does not imply that the Chicago Public Library is the exact average among library systems, yet it must be noted that its position has been tentatively established with reference to the book resources of five other large city libraries, and it has been found to hold a medial position.<sup>5</sup> Earlier studies have indicated that the library

<sup>4</sup> An additional branch has been opened in the present year, but is purposely not included in this paper.

<sup>5</sup> Leon Carnovsky, “Measurements in library service,” in C. B. Joeckel (ed.), *Current issues in library administration* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), p. 247. The six index numbers found for book resources are as follows: Detroit, 11.05; New York, 10.79; Chicago, 9.14; St. Louis, 8.21; Pittsburgh, 8.15; Minneapolis, 7.88.

service of the Chicago region is superior to other sections of the state.<sup>6</sup> Our "laboratory sample" is certainly at or above the average for the country as a whole.

The Chicago Public Library serves a city with a population totaling 3,250,000, of which approximately 1,750,000 live within three-quarters of a mile of one of the branch libraries. In addition, eleven subbranches and a system of deposit stations are maintained; these smaller libraries are not included in the present survey because their unit holdings are so meager. Note must be made of the fact that the Chicago Public Library maintains a strong interbranch loan service, so that a book located anywhere in the system is theoretically available to any resident of the city. Without seeking in any way to minimize the value of this excellent service, we must point out that loans through this channel account for only 2 per cent of the library's total adult circulation. Furthermore, it must be obvious that a patron is more likely to read a book that stands on the shelves of his local library than one that must be borrowed through an interbranch system.

In addition, the libraries of seven independent political units in the Chicago metropolitan area have been checked. These units have populations ranging from ten thousand to sixty-six thousand, the approximate range of the population groups served by the branches. The seven satellite communities represent both residential sections directly dependent upon the larger city and industrial towns of a semi-independent nature. Economically, they range from communities of high property values, populated by well-to-do citizens, to factory and steel mill communities, populated by industrial laborers.

#### THE QUESTION OF ACCESSIBILITY

Table 1 ranks the forty-four branches of the Chicago Public Library and the Main Library as to the number of titles on the measuring list held by each.

The three regional branches quite naturally hold the largest

<sup>6</sup> Illinois Library Extension Division, "Report of the survey of the public libraries of Illinois," *Illinois libraries*, XVII (April, 1935, supplement).

**TABLE 1**  
**NUMBER OF TITLES ON SELECTED LIST HELD BY LIBRARIES OF THE**  
**CHICAGO SYSTEM**

Library	Branch Symbol No.	Titles Held	Size of Adult Collection (Dec. 31, 1937)	Titles Held per 1,000 Volumes in Adult Collection
Main.....		121	700,000	0.17
Woodlawn.....	35	89	28,822	3.1
Legler.....	45	85	37,725	2.3
Hild.....	17	84	33,549	2.6
Sheridan.....	33	62	18,124	3.4
South Shore.....	16	61	17,583	3.5
Austin.....	18	52	20,930	2.5
Rogers Park.....	42	52	16,950	3.1
Independence Park.....	32	51	11,216	4.6
Blackstone.....	1	50	20,703	2.4
Hall.....	22	50	13,019	3.8
Albany Park.....	51	49	12,951	3.8
Douglas.....	2	48	17,306	2.8
Kelly.....	23	46	21,662	2.1
Humboldt.....	24	45	12,702	3.5
Broadway.....	44	43	12,170	3.5
Chicago Lawn.....	20	43	11,707	3.6
Toman.....	40	35	12,814	2.7
Lewis Institute.....	6	34	12,614	2.7
Logan Square.....	13	33	9,723	3.3
Walker.....	3	33	15,344	2.2
Portage Park.....	4	31	8,240	3.8
Chatham.....	9	28	10,660	2.5
Fuller Park.....	48	25	4,595	5.5
Pullman.....	15	23	10,688	2.1
Sherman Park.....	21	23	11,371	2.0
Hamilton Park.....	7	22	7,929	2.8
Roosevelt.....	5	21	4,299	4.9
Ogden Park.....	11	20	8,111	2.4
Northwesttown.....	43	17	9,636	1.8
Eckhart Park.....	14	16	4,638	3.5
Olivet Institute.....	28	16	4,450	3.6
Brighton Park.....	49	14	8,561	1.7
Cornell Square.....	52	14	3,525	4.0
Oakland.....	19	14	4,961	2.8
Avalon Park.....	8	13	4,120	3.2
Seward Park.....	27	13	4,638	2.8
Holstein Park.....	26	12	3,067	3.9
Hamlin Park.....	12	10	6,412	1.6
Bessemer Park.....	10	8	4,269	1.9
Davis Square.....	46	8	2,817	2.9
Dvorak Park.....	47	8	3,715	2.3
Hardin Square.....	36	7	4,121	1.7
Kosciuszko Park.....	39	7	4,284	1.6
Pulaski Park.....	54	7	3,695	1.9

number of titles in the system—all above eighty, or between 33.6 per cent and 35.6 per cent of the total list. At the opposite extreme are three libraries holding seven titles; it is noteworthy that these three libraries represent three contrasting types of communities—one a near slum district, one a district dominated by Negroes and Chinese, and one an average residential section. Typically, the pattern of holdings does not conform to a normal distribution; a large number of libraries are grouped together at the lower level, while only a few occupy the higher positions.

TABLE 2  
TITLES ON SELECTED LIST HELD BY SEVEN LIBRARIES  
OF THE CHICAGO AREA

Library	Population Served	Titles Held
Evanston.....	63,338	174
Oak Park.....	63,982	152
Aurora.....	46,589	106
Hammond.....	64,560	87
Winnetka.....	12,166	79
Maywood.....	25,829	52
La Grange.....	10,103	50

Turning from the extremes, we can describe the distribution of the holdings in several ways. Thus, 22 branches held less than 10 per cent of the titles (i.e., less than 25); 8 libraries held less than 5 per cent (i.e., less than 13). Or, expressed differently, 7 titles were considered important enough to be stocked by three-quarters or more of the units in the system, 22 titles were stocked by one-half or more units, and 56 titles by one-quarter or more units.

Table 2 lists the holdings of titles on the measuring list by seven smaller libraries in the Chicago region. Two of these—Evanston and Oak Park—hold more of the titles than does the Main Library of the Chicago system. Three—Evanston, Oak Park, and Aurora—hold more than any branch of the Chicago system. The number of people served by these suburban institutions is similar to that served by a large branch. Certain ad-

vantages are unquestionably given to Evanston through its arrangement with the American Library Association whereby it has first choice of books submitted for the *Booklist* by the various publishers. Although the per capita book expenditure in Chicago proper, even with state aid for book purchases, is not as high as in the smaller cities, yet the sheer gross amount of the larger city's book budget would be expected to provide as many of these current significant titles as can be found in the smaller units. The yearly library support in these outlying libraries ranges from \$0.63 to \$1.18 per capita, with one library receiving \$1.80; this cost for library service is, in most cases, from two to three times as much as in the city proper.

An additional method of internal analysis of holdings is in terms of titles and specifically those that are lacking in one or another system. The listings indicate that a large number of titles can be found nowhere in the Chicago system. The Main Library possesses 121 titles and the branches compositely hold 26 additional; thus, 103 of the books listed are not in the Chicago library.<sup>7</sup> The list purposely included a few scholarly titles and one may wonder if the titles not held in Chicago were of this type. This is not the case, however, for among many semipopular publications the following are a few that are not to be found in the Chicago Public Library:

Burns, *Challenge to democracy*  
 Catlin, *Preface to action*  
 Huizinga, *In the shadow of tomorrow*  
 Niebuhr, *Reflections on the end of an era*  
 Richmond, *Sea power in the modern world*  
 Riegel, *Mobilizing for chaos*  
 Salter, *The United States of Europe*  
 Salvemini, *Under the axe of fascism*

We note also some outstanding books held by the Main Library, but by none of the branches:

Arnold, *Symbols of government*  
 Childs, *Propaganda and dictatorship*  
 Douglas, *Controlling depressions*

<sup>7</sup> As of July 1, 1938.

Hicks, *John Reed*  
Laidler, *Socializing our democracy*  
Nourse, *America's capacity to produce*  
Tchernavin, *Escape from the Soviets*

Obviously the outlying libraries possessed numerous titles not held in the Chicago institution. Were these additional holdings the few scholarly treatises on the list? The answer to this is definitely negative, for these materials were not held by any of the libraries. Rather, the additional holdings of the outlying libraries of titles not in the larger system include such well-known material as the following:

Ascoli, *Intelligence in politics*  
Cantwell, *Land of plenty*  
Cobb, *New horizons for the child*  
Eddy, *Russia today*  
Huxley, *If I were dictator*  
Laidler, *Program for modern America*  
MacFarland, *The new church and the new Germany*  
Millsbaugh, *Local democracy and crime control*  
Shotwell, *On the rim of the abyss*

The one compelling finding in all these figures is the wide range of holdings revealed. Put concretely, it is possible for an individual to live in one section of this metropolitan district and have 174 of 250 significant titles available in his local library, and for another to live in a section that has 7 of the titles. Both individuals are said to have "library service," yet it is doubtful if the same term can describe two such dissimilar situations. Within the Chicago system we can observe one library on the northwest side of the city (Hild Branch) holding 84 titles, while another library exactly two miles to the south (Hamlin Branch) holds 10. The second library, be it noted, serves only a slightly smaller population, and a population having only a slightly lower educational level than the first. Granted that this is an extreme example—comparing a regional branch to a small park branch—but to the "man on the street" the difference is that between 10 and 84. Nor is this an isolated example: one of the three lowest branches (Kosciuszko Park), holding 7 titles, serves a community similar in amount of social mobility, educational



level, and economic status to another (Portage Park) holding 31, and to another (Humboldt) holding 45. Whatever service we do conceive as being compatible with library objectives, surely we should approach some semblance of equality in the provision of that service, while yet keeping individual community needs in mind.

What light does all this cast upon our original question—that is, are significant books on social problems readily accessible through the public library? Obviously the answer is one thing for certain libraries, something else for others. The question of absolute standards intrudes itself again. How many of these 250 titles should a library possess in order to answer the previous question affirmatively? Is the number 25, or 89, or 174? We do not know. But we are justified in venturing that it is not 7, or 10, or 15. Librarians of institutions in this latter group have argued that social-problem books are not read in their communities and cite as their evidence for this statement the small circulation of the few titles they do possess. This argument appears to be spurious in view of the fact that circulation of a type of literature cannot be expected until the library is established as a source of such material by providing more than a few scattered titles in the field.

The desirable standard is not 7, or 10, or 15 titles. If we increase the number to 25 we note that 21 of the Chicago units fail to attain this standard. If, in view of the importance of the issues covered by the list and in view of the very considerable number of titles published in the field—some two thousand in the three-year period—we increase the number to 50, only 10 Chicago branches attain the standard. These 10 libraries serve approximately 525,000 persons out of 3,250,000. The point is not the exact number we choose as a standard, but rather the fact that, designating any reasonable standard, only a fraction of the library-serviced population in an above-average metropolitan area have ready access to a representative collection of books about social problems. The facts presented warrant the conclusion that accessibility, or more properly lack of accessibility, is a factor of importance in the sparse reading of social-

problem books through the agency of the public library. This is not to maintain that other factors do not enter the picture. It is not impossible that the journalistic newspaper and popular magazine accounts of social problems satisfy the relatively small desire for such material. But, having demonstrated the lack of accessibility of significant social-problem books, and remembering the established relationship between accessibility and actual reading, we have indicated a practical foundation for the extension of service in an important social field.

#### RELATION OF HOLDINGS TO SIZE OF COLLECTION

Two questions of intrinsic importance to the data and interpretations advanced must be considered. The first of these has to do with the relation of holdings of titles on the measuring list to the size of the collection. If it is true that the larger the collection the greater the holdings in all cases, then excellence as indicated by this method is primarily a function of the total holdings of the library, and greater excellence can be automatically attained by adding volumes with the same methods as those previously used. The second question has to do with the sound principle that the collection provided should reflect community conditions and interests. We are interested here in observing the relation of community social indices to holdings of titles on the measuring list. This will be enlightening in view of the fact that the Chicago branch system pursues a method of allowing each branch librarian to select books in terms of individual community needs.

In Table 1 it is suggested that there is a relationship between the number of titles held on the measuring list and the size of the adult collection of the library. This is indicated by the fact that the largest branch holding (89 titles) is 12.7 times larger than the smallest holding (7 titles), while the largest number of titles held per one thousand volumes in the adult collection (5.5) is only 3.4 times larger than the smallest number (1.6). A product-moment correlation of 0.904 between list holdings and size of collection is another way of expressing the same relationship. Therefore, within the limitations of the size of the collection, the gross holdings do not, in a sense, provide a means for

directly comparing individual branches. Rather, the number of titles held per one thousand volumes in the adult collection is an index number which is directly comparable from unit to unit. To cite an example, South Shore Branch with 61 titles and Eckhart Park Branch with 16 are not directly comparable, but their index numbers, 3.5 in each case, are thus comparable and suggest that the two branches hold an equal number of titles if the factor of size of collection is kept constant. Of course, the potential patron, as a reader of significant books about social problems, is not concerned with the relation of significant books to the total collection in his local library, but rather with the absolute number of such titles; the agency holding the greatest number is to him the best library.

However, a factor other than the size of the collection obviously contributes to the number of social-problem books held. If we take 50 titles as desirable, the required adult collection at the rate of the lowest branch, 1.6 titles per one thousand volumes, would be 31,200 volumes, while at the rate of the highest branch, 5.5 titles per one thousand volumes, the required collection would be only 9,100 volumes. This variation indicates that an increase in the number of significant social-problem titles held can be accomplished not only by increasing the collection as a whole, but also by the book-selection policy of the librarian. It is this additional factor that permits a small collection to hold more titles on a measuring list than a large one.

Further variations in the direct relationship of size of collection to number of titles held on the measuring list are observable. The first of these is illustrated in its extreme form by the titles held per one thousand volumes in the adult collection by the Main Library of the Chicago system: 0.17 titles per one thousand volumes, as compared with 2.6 in the "average" branch and 3.2 in the "average" suburban library. In very large collections, we may conclude, the relationship is a tenuous one and of little significance in interpretation. We note that two collections—Evanston and Oak Park—both containing less than 8 per cent of the large one, hold from 27 per cent to 44 per cent more titles on the measuring list. The freedom from an accumulation of nonused materials, the higher per capita book budgets

of the smaller cities, and probable differences in book-selection policy are possible explanations for this difference.

Another interesting variation is to compare the average number of titles per one thousand volumes held by the highest ten and the lowest ten branches of the Chicago system; the two figures are 3.1 and 2.3. This indicates that selectors for the smaller collections tend to add significant new titles not only in smaller absolute numbers but at a slower rate than do selectors for the larger branch collections. Similarly, it suggests the conclusion, at variance with a more likely opposite hypothesis, that smaller collections have in them a higher proportion of inferior material. This is in line with the previous contention that libraries holding only a few socially significant titles are not used as sources of such material by anyone and therefore would add these titles at a slower rate.

In a sentence, there is a relationship between size of collection and holdings on a measuring list, but the range of the relationship is so great that the principle should be used with caution. Books of the nature of those included on the list contribute the bulk of desirable titles in the field of popular education. Noting the breakdown of the relation of such titles to size of collection in very large institutions, we are led to the speculation that perhaps the medium-sized library is as able to supply material of this nature as is the very large library. Additional checking should throw light upon this point. Certainly we can conclude that not only theoretically but also in actual practice the number of significant titles held is a function of the book-selection policy as well as of the size of the collection.

#### RELATION OF HOLDINGS TO COMMUNITY SOCIAL INDICES

Absolute standards of measurement, as we have stated previously, can be set up only in terms of the unique service area of each library. This assumes that community individuality is reflected in book collections. What relation can be found, among the libraries checked, between the number of social-problem books held and various indices designed to measure community characteristics?

Three indices have been chosen as differentiating social communities. These three do not exhaust the possible differentials, but they are characteristic of differences cited by librarians. The three indices are the educational level, the economic status, and the social mobility of the inhabitants of each "library community." The library community is taken as that section about each unit in which its registrations are heavily distributed. In most cases this section is defined geographically by a circle which varies in radius in some relation to the size of the book collection; occasionally such geographical or social variants as railroad yards, industrial districts, or a sharp boundary between racial types or economic groups violate the circular pattern, forcing it into unorthodox shapes. The educational index is taken as that portion of the population served which has more than eight grades of education, the economic index as that portion of the population paying more than \$30 per month rent (the "rent" of privately owned dwellings being 1 per cent of taxable value), and the index of social mobility as that portion of the population served residing at its present address more than two years.

Figures 1, 2, and 3 list in one column the library communities in rank order as measured by the index, one figure for each of the three measures, and in the other column the crude list holdings of the libraries in matched order. The three regional branches are not included in the charts because it was believed that the registration area of these units does not define the actual public which uses the library.

If the relationship between the social differential and list holdings were perfect—for example, if the higher the educational level of the community the greater the holdings in every case—the bars of the right-hand columns would follow a pattern exactly similar to that of the left. Such is not the case, yet there is a definite tendency in this direction in the cases of the educational and economic measures. We can therefore generalize that, in the present sample, the higher the educational or economic level the higher the proportion of significant titles on social problems—and conversely, the lower the level the lower the

holdings. While recognizing full well that mere relationship does not establish causation, yet the tendency appears to be a

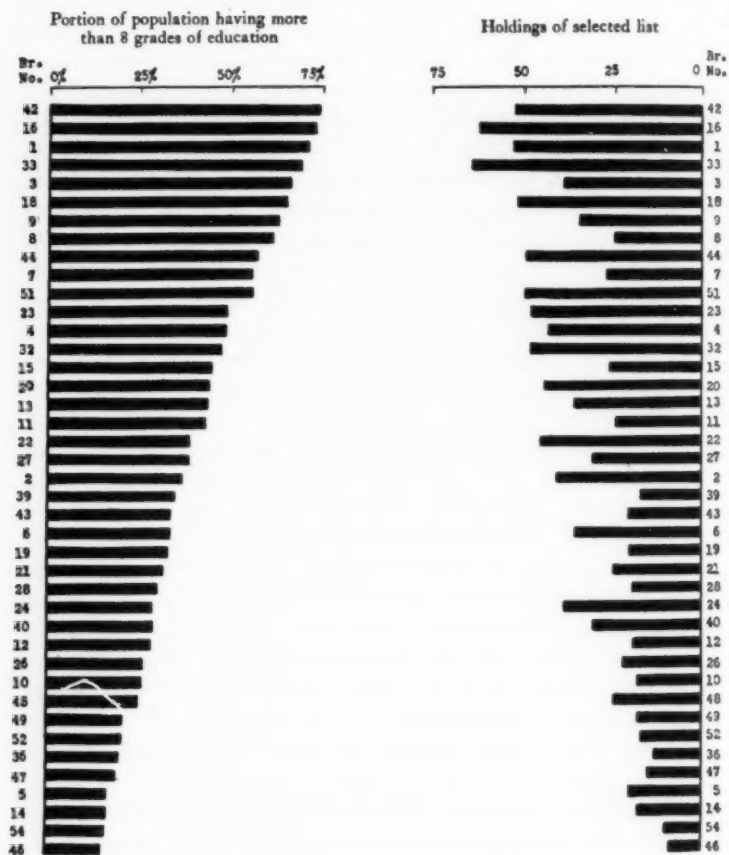


FIG. 1.—Comparison of educational level and holdings in Chicago branch system (regional branches excluded).

logical one in the case of educational level, for we would expect our socially significant books to be demanded and read more by educated individuals. But what of economic level? Does the well-to-do person depend on the library and the poor one not?

One would think that the wealthier person would purchase more books for himself or rent them. There are two possible explana-

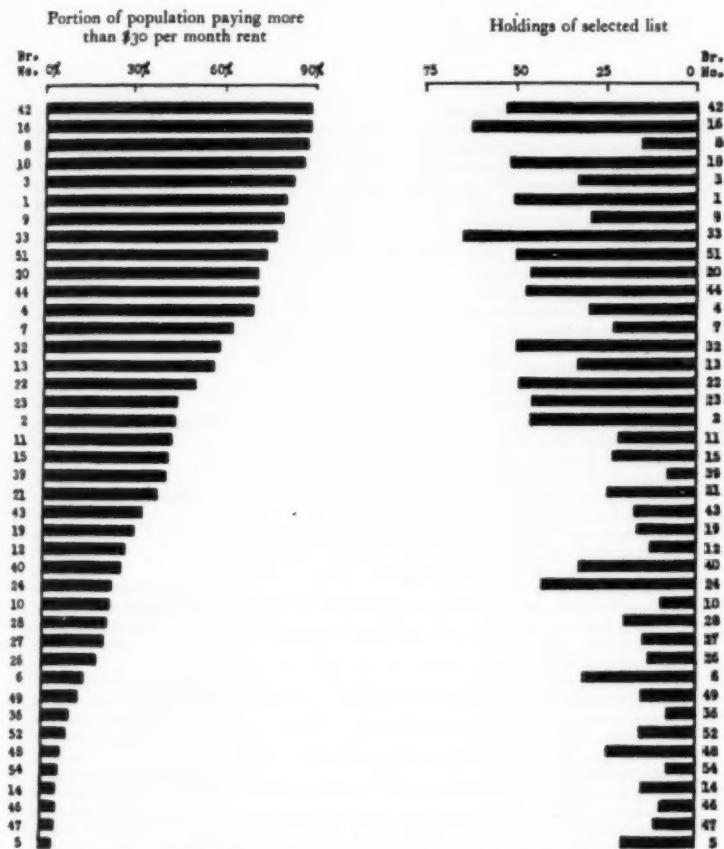


FIG. 2.—Comparison of economic status and holdings in Chicago branch system (regional branches excluded).

tions for this anomaly. First, there is a definite connection between economic level and education: Lang<sup>8</sup> found a correlation

<sup>8</sup> R. O. Lang, "Population characteristics associated with educational levels and economic status in Chicago," *American sociological review*, II (1937), 192. In determining this correlation, native whites, sex ratio, and fertility were held constant.



between these two factors of 0.61. Second—and this is a disturbing thought—it is possible that library branch adminis-

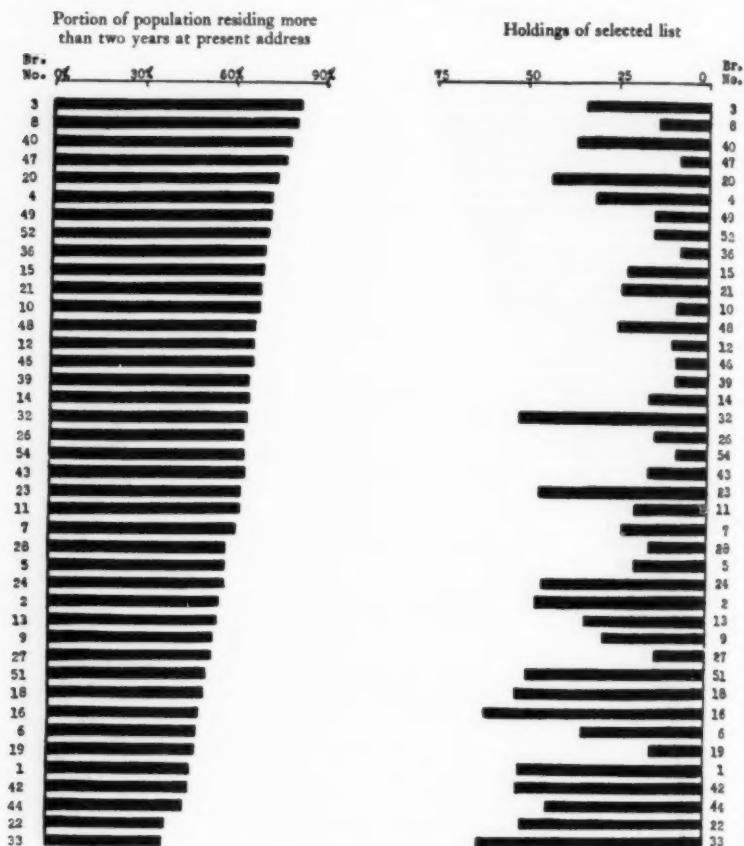


FIG. 3.—Comparison of social mobility and holdings in Chicago branch system (regional branches excluded).

trators, when placing a unit in a shabby neighborhood where they are forced into dilapidated quarters because of building conditions, will naturally stock such quarters inadequately.

The branch will be little used and will therefore, following the line of reasoning, make a poor showing on any measure. In substance, that group most needing library service, and perhaps the best library service, will be denied it by a series of ruthless environmental factors.

The relationship between social mobility and list holdings, as revealed in Figure 3, is vague and indefinite. Some slight tendency appears for communities with high social mobility to hold more titles on the measuring list, but this is not sufficiently definite to merit generalization.

A more exact approach to the relation of list holdings to social characteristics makes note of the fact that one of the eight groups of books included in the measuring list is termed "minority groups," these being concerned primarily with the problem of racial and national minorities. To a certain extent the presence or absence of a minority-group problem in a community is determined by the proportion of foreign-born and Negroes residing in it. We might well expect an increasing proportion of books of this type as the proportion of minority national or racial groups increases. But we cannot compare this factor directly with total holdings even in this restricted subdivision, for the neighborhoods with a large proportion of foreign-born tend to be at the lower economic levels, and we have already noted the presence of smaller collections in these areas. The comparison is therefore made, in Figure 4, with the minority-problem titles held per one thousand volumes, and thus size of collection is kept constant. Two of the libraries tend to match their large numbers of foreign-born and Negroes with a high proportion of minority-problem books. One of these, Branch 22, serves a solid Negro district, and the other, Branch 5, a mobile section populated by a mixture of Mexicans, Italians, Negroes, and Jews. Both are extreme examples requiring little sociological insight to recognize their characteristics. Above these two obvious examples, however, but little connection with the community situation can be noted; in fact, there is a tendency for communities in the middle of the figure, with a moderate number of foreign-born and Negroes, to have fewer minority-problem

books than those at the top with a negligible proportion of racial and national minorities.

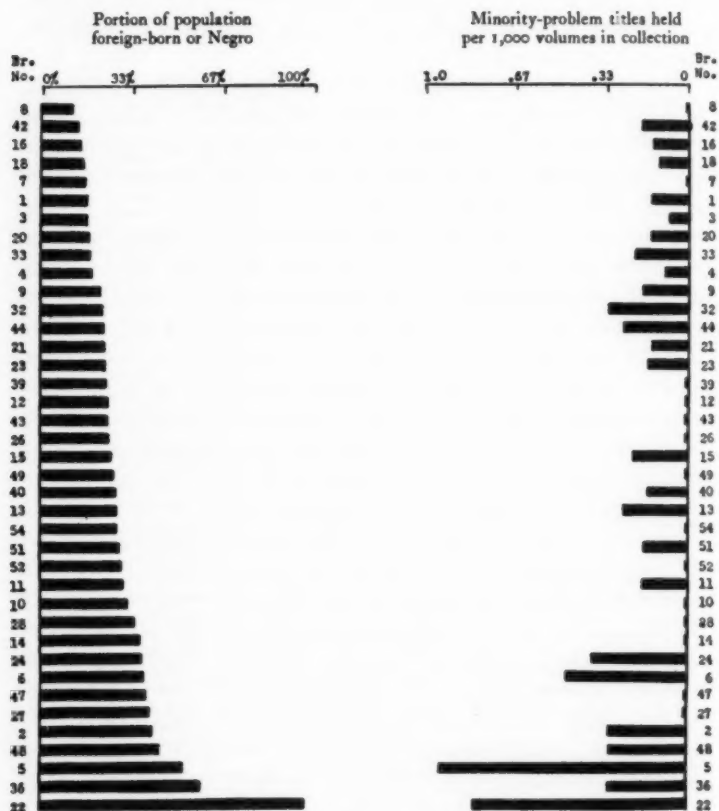


FIG. 4.—Comparison of minority groups and minority-problem titles in Chicago branch system (regional branches excluded).

In matching holdings to social indices we have noted first, on a general plane, that there is a relationship of holdings of titles on the measuring list to economic and educational level, but not to degree of social mobility; and second, on more specific

examination, that the matching of narrower topics to individual needs is accomplished only in rare instances. The value of this partial analysis is more in the method proposed than in the extent to which it is here applied. Yet, fragmentary as these findings are, they raise a basic question in public library book-selection policy. We note a greater supply of social-problem books in the higher economic areas. Is this a reflection of reading needs and interests? What evidence have we that the upper economic class, or any other socially defined group, needs or reads more or less of this or any other type of literature? The answer is, precious little. Until additional evidence of reading in terms of social distinctions is forthcoming—extended evidence on the basis of occupational groups and new evidence on the basis of other social categories—we can accurately match book collection to social groups only to the limited and obvious extent characterized by providing garden-books for communities of homeowners. And even when that social data is at hand the problem of book selection will not be solved, for it is doubtful if social groupings entirely determine reading; psychological traits may have as much or greater import.

#### SUMMARY

For purposes of brevity the conclusions and interpretations advanced on the basis of the findings of the present investigation can be summarized as follows:

1. The range of holdings of the fifty-two libraries checked was extremely wide, suggesting an inequality of accessibility out of all proportion to individual community needs.
2. Applying some such reasonable minimum standard as fifty books held on the measuring list, we find that eight out of fifty-two libraries, serving no more than 30 per cent of the population of a large metropolitan area, can be said to provide moderate accessibility to recent significant publications about social problems.
3. Selection of outstanding titles is haphazard on the part of all selecting agencies measured, resulting in a failure by each library system to hold some exceptional titles.
4. While there is a general relationship of list holdings to size of collection, yet many exceptions are noted, and in the case of very large collections the

relationship disappears entirely; whether this leads to the conclusion that the medium-sized library can supply as well as the large one the bulk of publications required for popular education is an open question.

5. A relationship between list holdings and economic and educational level was observed which may reflect community needs or may be the accident of environmental forces working upon the library; the relationship did not hold in the case of social mobility.
6. While some notable examples of matching of specific topic to community need were observed in the Chicago area, a lack of such matching was also prevalent.

These conclusions do not necessarily apply to other library situations, for our knowledge of the extent to which the Chicago district is a representative metropolitan library area is limited. Application of the measuring list to additional libraries of varied size, type, and geographical location is plainly desirable. Also desirable is a more comprehensive study of the degree to which present collections reflect individual community needs and characteristics. A comparison of the average circulation turnover for books about social problems in strong collections in the field, with average circulation turnover for similar books in weak collections, should throw light on the hypothesis that social-problem collections are not used regularly until they have attained a sufficient size to be representative of the field.

Returning to the question which motivated the present inquiry—that pertaining to the role of the public library in the dissemination of print about current social problems—we realize that the place of the library in providing popular social enlightenment is definitely circumscribed by the limited provision that it makes of significant social-problem material. Books of doubtful social value are being provided, evidently, at the expense of more important titles. This principle of book selection is justified on the basis of demand: these more serious titles will not be used, we are told, while the lighter ones circulate rapidly. The present inquiry is therefore being extended to an investigation of the amount of circulation of books about social problems.

## HOLDINGS OF INCUNABULA IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

FREMONT RIDER

SOME weeks ago a member of the Wesleyan University faculty asked how our holdings of incunabula compared with those of other colleges and universities in the United States.

Offhand, this question looked easy to answer. But the admirable *Census of fifteenth century books owned in America*, compiled by the Committee of the Bibliographical Society of America, while advising which libraries have specific titles, does not tabulate quantitatively the holdings of the libraries it covers. The beautifully printed Chicago check list<sup>1</sup> does give the information desired for the Chicago area—but only for that area and as of ten years ago. Both *Minerva* and *Index generalis* have an item in their questionnaires asking for information as to holdings of incunabula; but answers to this item prove, upon investigation, to be exceedingly fragmentary for libraries in the United States. Numerous other bibliographical sources were searched—all without success. At first view one publication from a most unexpected source—Córdoba, Argentina<sup>2</sup>—seemed likely to be helpful. But on more careful analysis it proved disappointing. It omitted entirely two of the three libraries in the United States with the largest holdings, as well as many smaller ones; it reported two libraries as having over one hundred volumes each which, on direct inquiry, reported themselves as having none; and its data admittedly came in large part from the

<sup>1</sup> Pierce Butler (comp.), *A check list of fifteenth century books in the Newberry Library and in other libraries of Chicago* (Chicago: Newberry Library, 1933).

<sup>2</sup> Enrique Sparr, *Las Bibliotecas con cien y más incunables y su distribución geográfica sobre la tierra: contribución a la ciencia de los incunables y a la geografía de la cultura* ("República Argentina Academia Nacional de Ciencias miscelánea," No. 16; Córdoba, Argentina, 1927).

two yearbooks already cited. However, notwithstanding its lacks, this pamphlet by Señor Sparn was both helpful and stimulating.<sup>3</sup>

By this time the question that had been so casually put had intrigued us. Since it appeared that the only way to secure the answer was by direct correspondence, we proceeded to write to each of the 236 libraries in the United States which we selected as at all likely to have incunabula. We are now aware that such holdings are likely to crop up in the most unexpected places, and if some library was overlooked that should have been on our list, we offer sincere apologies.

Before we go further with this analysis of holdings in the United States it may be of interest to consider briefly the world-wide distribution of incunabula, i.e., to see the relationship of our national holdings to those of other countries. It has been estimated that there are still in existence, saved from fire, flood, and the ravages of time, no less than 450,000 incunabula.<sup>4</sup> Dr. Sparn in his article in 1927 estimated that there were then, the world over, 419 libraries possessing 100 or more incunabula each, and 104 libraries possessing 1,000 or more each. These 104 libraries he distributed as follows: in Germany, 31; in Italy, 25; in France, 7; in Austria, Switzerland, and Poland, 5 each; in England and Czechoslovakia, 4 each; in the United States, Spain, and Hungary, 3 each; in Holland, Sweden, and Russia, 2 each; in Belgium, Portugal, and Denmark, 1 each.

Through the years since 1927 there has probably been relatively slight change in incunabula holdings for libraries outside the United States. For the United States, however, as has been suggested, changes of holdings have been great, and the figures of Señor Sparn are now wide of the mark. In Table 1 is presented the world-wide distribution of incunabula by countries

<sup>3</sup> It is by no means merely a preliminary study. It extends to seventy-two pages, it is illustrated with a large folded map of the world showing incunabula holdings by countries, and by numerous diagrams and maps in the text, and it has for an appendix a detailed list of libraries grouped by countries, with a statement of their respective holdings.

<sup>4</sup> K. W. Hiersemann, *Verlagskatalog* (Leipzig, December, 1924), p. 91.



in rank order. The United States figures are based on the replies received to our correspondence, while the British figures follow the careful analysis of Dr. Ernst Crous.<sup>5</sup>

TABLE 1  
WORLD-WIDE DISTRIBUTION OF INCUNABULA BY COUNTRIES

Relative Rank	Country	Number of Libraries Holding 100 Volumes or More	Total Number of Volumes Held
1.....	Germany	105	115,927
2.....	Italy	80	70,721
3.....	France	56	35,278
4.....	Great Britain	40	34,045
5.....	Austria	24	23,641
6.....	United States	26	20,813
7.....	Poland	16	11,973
8.....	Switzerland	14	10,600
9.....	Czechoslovakia	10	9,333
10.....	Spain	18	9,076
11.....	Holland	12	7,601
12.....	Russia	6	6,897
13.....	Hungary	5	6,533
14.....	Denmark	2	4,315
15.....	Belgium	10	4,305
16.....	Sweden	5	3,372
17.....	Portugal	6	2,179
18.....	Danzig	1	850
19.....	Jugoslavia	2	500
20.....	Luxemburg	1	468
21.....	Norway	1	400
22.....	Finland	1	200
23.....	British India	1	150
24.....	Mexico	1	120
25.....	New Zealand	1	100
Total...		444	379,397

If we turn to the holdings of individual libraries we find that first place goes not to the Bibliothèque Nationale, the Vatican Library, or the Preussische Staatsbibliothek, but to the Bayerische Staatsbibliothek at Munich, which is credited with the

<sup>5</sup> "The inventory of incunabula in Great Britain and Ireland," *Transactions of the Bibliographical Society*, XII (October, 1911—April, 1913), 177-209.

TABLE 2

RANKING OF FIFTY-SEVEN LIBRARIES OF THE WORLD HAVING  
THE LARGEST COLLECTIONS OF INCUNABULA

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes Held	Source of Information
1.....	Bayerische Staatsbibliothek, Munich	16,000	g
2.....	British Museum Library, London	11,500	e
3.....	Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris	10,000	s
4.....	Nationalbibliothek, Vienna	9,000	g
5.....	Oxford University Libraries, Oxford	7,744	e
6.....	Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, Rome	7,000	g
7.....	Preussische Staatsbibliothek, Berlin	6,351	s
8.....	Huntington Library, San Marino, Calif.	5,200	p
9.....	Cambridge University, Cambridge	5,039	e
10.....	Württembergische Landesbibliothek, Stuttgart	4,627	s
11.....	Staatsbibliothek, Bamberg	4,500	g
12.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Freiburg	4,300	g
13.....	Kongelige Bibliotek, Copenhagen	4,200	g
14.....	State Library, Leningrad	4,100	s
15.....	Landesbibliothek, Wolfenbüttel	4,000	s
16.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Würzburg	3,800	g
17.....	Library of Congress, Washington	3,604	p
18.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Breslau	3,208	s
19.....	Koninklijke Bibliotheek, The Hague	3,000	g
20.....	Stadtbibliothek, Mainz	2,929	s
21.....	Biblioteca dell' Accademia dei Lincei, Rome	3,000	g
22.....	Biblioteca Nazionale Marciana, Venice	2,900	g
23.....	Universitäts Bibliothek, Basel	2,895	s
24.....	Cracovia Universitäts-Bibliothek, Cracovia	2,879	s
25.....	Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal, Paris	2,800	g
26.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Leipzig	2,800	g
27.....	Stadtbibliothek, Mainz	2,800	g
28.....	Szechenyi Bibliothek, Budapest	2,759	s
29.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Prague	2,758	g
30.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Goettingen	2,500	s
31.....	Germanischen Nationalmuseums, Nuremberg	2,500	g
32.....	Stadtbibliothek, Trier	2,500	s
33.....	John Rylands Library, Manchester	2,400	e
34.....	Biblioteca Nacional, Madrid	2,379	s
35.....	Sächsische Landesbibliothek, Dresden	2,361	g
36.....	Stadtbibliothek, Cologne	2,300	g
37.....	Biblioteca Corsiniana, Rome	2,288	g
38.....	Biblioteca Nazionale Braidense, Milan	2,165	s
39.....	Hessische Landesbibliothek, Darmstadt	2,050	g
40.....	Biblioteca Casanatense, Rome	2,020	g
41.....	Studijni Knihovna, Olomouc-Olmütz	2,000	g
42.....	Gräfl. Krasinskische Bibliothek, Warsaw	2,000	g
43.....	Staatsbibliothek, Augsburg	2,000	g

TABLE 2—Continued

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes Held	Source of Information
44.....	Universitätsbibliothek, Erlangen	2,000	g
45.....	Stadtbibliothek, Augsburg	2,000	g
46.....	Stadtbibliothek, Frankfurt	2,000	g
47.....	Stadtbibliothek, Nuremberg	2,000	g
48.....	Biblioteca Palatina, Parma	1,932	g
49.....	Bibliothèque Mazarine, Paris	1,900	g
50.....	Harvard University Library, Cambridge	1,850	p
51.....	Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale Vittorio Emanuele, Rome	1,850	g
52.....	Biblioteca Comunale dell'Archiginnasio, Bologna	1,822	s
53.....	J. P. Morgan Library, New York	1,800	p
54.....	Bibliothèque Universitaire, Strassburg	1,800	g
55.....	Stadtbibliothek, Berne	1,800	s
56.....	Zentralbibliothek, Zurich	1,700	g
57.....	Newberry Library, Chicago	1,634	p

possession of over 16,000 volumes. In second place comes the Library of the British Museum with 11,500 volumes. And in third place, the Bibliothèque Nationale with 9,500 volumes.

The fifty-seven libraries of the world having the largest holdings of incunabula are ranked in Table 2 according to the number of volumes they hold. The source of the figures is indicated by: s (Sparr), g (*Index generalis*), e (Crous), and p (personal correspondence).

The effect of time on the relative holdings of incunabula here and abroad is shown clearly by comparing the list in Table 2 with Sparr's similar list. Eighth place in the world goes today to a library which, in 1927, did not even appear in the Sparr list. Of the other three libraries in the United States which were mentioned by Sparr, the Library of Congress with 3,604 volumes now ranks seventeenth instead of seventy-fifth; the Harvard University Library with 1,850 volumes now ranks fiftieth instead of sixty-third; and the Newberry Library with 1,634 volumes is now fifty-seventh instead of eighty-seventh. In addition to the Huntington Library, another library in the United States, the J. P. Morgan Library with 1,800 volumes, was not

TABLE 3

INCUNABULA HELD BY LIBRARIES OF THE UNITED STATES AS OF DECEMBER, 1938

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes (Exclusive of Duplicates)	Remarks
	<i>Huntington Library, San Marino, Calif.</i>	5,189	Librarian's estimate
	<i>Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.</i>	3,604	Includes 47 in Law Library, 6 in Map Division, 9 in Music Division
1...	Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.	1,860	Librarian's estimate —includes 10 in Radcliffe College
	<i>J. P. Morgan Library, New York</i>	1,800	Librarian's estimate
	<i>Newberry Library, Chicago</i>	1,634	
2...	<i>Free Library of Philadelphia</i>	628	Librarian's estimate
	Brown University, Providence, R.I.	622	Includes 513 in Ann-mary Brown Memorial Library, 80 in John Carter Brown Library—part of the University group but administratively independent
3...	Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.	558	Includes 536 in Chapin Collection
4...	University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill	489	
	<i>New York Public Library</i>	482	
	<i>Surgeon-General's Library, Washington</i>	453	
5...	College of Physicians of Philadelphia	411	
6...	Yale University, New Haven, Conn.	389	Plus 20 fragments
7...	Union Theological Seminary, New York	335	
8...	Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.	322	Plus 10 fragments
	<i>Boston Public Library</i>	312	
9...	University of Michigan, Ann Arbor	287	Includes 22 in Clements Library; 7 in Law Library
10...	Columbia University, New York	280	
	<i>Folger Shakespeare Library, Washington</i>	250	Librarian's estimate
	<i>Hispanic Society of America, New York</i>	250	Librarian's estimate
11...	Princeton University, Princeton, N.J.	206	Plus a few more not yet positively identified
12...	Jewish Theological Seminary, New York	189	Plus 44 fragments
	<i>Watkinson Library, Hartford, Conn.</i>	188	
13...	University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia	175	
14...	University of Chicago	167	

TABLE 3—Continued

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes (Exclusive of Duplicates)	Remarks
15...	Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati	111	33 known and identified, plus those in 2 collections recently acquired—"whether 50 or 200 or 19 would be unable to say for some time." Plus many leaves
16...	University of Virginia, Charlottesville	100(?)	
17...	Hartford Theological Seminary, Hartford, Conn.	89	Includes 14 in Museum of European Culture
18...	Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.	77	
19...	University of Illinois, Urbana	72	
20...	University of Rochester	70	Includes 9 in Sibley Music Library, 8 in Medical Library
21...	Hamilton College, Clinton, N.Y.	68	Plus 3 fragments
	<i>Peabody Institute, Baltimore</i>	66	
22...	University of Minnesota, Minneapolis	65	
22...	Catholic University of America, Washington	65	Librarian's estimate
24...	Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.	62	
24...	Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.	62	
	<i>John Crerar Library, Chicago</i>	60	Plus 4 leaves
26...	St. Bonaventure College, St. Bonaventure, N.Y.	59	
	<i>Boston Athenaeum</i>	56	
27...	Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.	54	Plus 192 leaves and fragments
	<i>Saint Vincent Archabbey Library, Latrobe, Pa.</i>	48	
	<i>Sutro Branch, Calif. State Library, San Francisco</i>	45	
28...	Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.	38	Including 8 in Nash Loan Collection, plus 261 leaves
28...	State College of Washington, Pullman	38	
28...	Saint Mary of the Lake Seminary, Mundelein, Ill.	38	
31...	University of Oregon, Eugene	37	Plus 9 leaves
32...	University of Southern California, Los Angeles	36	
33...	Stanford University, Palo Alto, Calif.	35	
34...	University of Cincinnati	34	Includes 10 in Gary Law Library, plus 3 leaves
35...	Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.	33	
	<i>Cleveland Public Library</i>	33	

TABLE 3—Continued

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes (Exclusive of Duplicates)	Remarks
36...	New York University	30	
	<i>Grosvenor Library, Buffalo</i>	29	
	<i>Yarnall Library of Theology, Philadelphia</i>	28	
	<i>Dominican House of Studies, Washington</i>	27	
37...	Dropsie College Library, Philadelphia	26	
38...	Princeton Theological Seminary	25	
39...	Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa.	24	
40...	University of California, Berkeley	23	
	<i>New York State Library, Albany</i>	23	Includes 7 on deposit
41...	Drew University, Madison, N.J.	22	
	<i>Worcester Public Library</i>	21	
42...	University of Notre Dame, South Bend, Ind.	20	Librarian's estimate
	<i>Massachusetts Historical Society, Boston</i>	20	
43...	University of Vermont, Burlington	19	
43...	Woodstock College, Woodstock, Md.	19	
	<i>Connecticut Historical Society, Hartford</i>	18	
	<i>Minneapolis Public Library</i>	18	Includes 17 in Baker Collection
45...	Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio	15	Plus considerable number of single leaves
45...	College of the City of New York	15	
	<i>Portsmouth Athenaeum, Portsmouth, N.H.</i>	15	
45...	Lutheran Theological Seminary, Philadelphia	15	
	<i>Newark Public Library</i>	14	Plus 187 leaves and fragments
	<i>Mercantile Library, Philadelphia</i>	14	Librarian's estimate
48...	Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware	14	
	<i>Cincinnati Public Library</i>	13	Plus 2 leaves
49...	Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y.	13	
49...	Indiana University, Bloomington	13	
49...	Drexel Institute Library, Philadelphia	13	
49...	St. Louis University	13	
53...	University of South Carolina, Columbia	12	
	<i>American Antiquarian Society, Worcester</i>	12	Librarian's estimate
	<i>Howe Library, Hanover, N.H.</i>	12	
54...	University of Nebraska, Lincoln	10	Plus 2 leaves
54...	Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.	10	Includes 5 in School of Medicine, 5 in Botanical Garden Library
54...	Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago	10	Librarian's estimate
54...	St. Bernard's Seminary, Rochester, N.Y.	10	
	<i>United Engineering Societies, New York</i>	10	
54...	Vanderbilt University, Nashville	10	Librarian's estimate

TABLE 3—Continued

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes (Exclusive of Duplicates)	Remarks
59...	University of Texas, Austin	9	Plus 2 leaves
59...	St. Ignatius College, Chicago	9	
	<i>Long Island Historical Society, Brooklyn</i>	9	
	<i>Spokane Public Library</i>	8	
61...	Sage Library, Theological Sem., New Brunswick, N.J.	8	
	<i>Library Association of Portland, Oregon</i>	8	
	<i>American Philosophical Society, Philadelphia</i>	8	
61...	University of Oklahoma, Norman	8	
63...	Bryn Mawr College	7	
63...	Niagara University, Niagara Falls, N.Y.	7	
63...	St. Patrick's Seminary, Menlo Park, Calif.	7	
	<i>Buffalo Historical Society, Buffalo</i>	7	
	<i>Providence Athenaeum, Providence, R.I.</i>	7	
	<i>Essex Institute, Salem, Mass.</i>	7	
66...	Trinity College, Hartford	6	
66...	Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.	6	
	<i>Howard Memorial Library, New Orleans</i>	6	
	<i>Pequot Library, Southport, Conn.</i>	6	
66...	Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge	6	
	<i>Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh</i>	6	
	<i>Chicago Public Library</i>	6	
69...	Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.	5	
69...	Colgate University, Hamilton, N.Y.	5	
	<i>Redwood Library, Newport, R.I.</i>	5	
69...	University of Denver	5	Librarian's estimate
69...	Baylor University, Waco, Texas	5	
69...	University of Colorado, Boulder	5	
69...	Smith College, Northampton, Mass.	5	
69...	Western Reserve, Cleveland, Ohio	5	
76...	Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.	4	
	<i>City Library Association, Springfield, Mass.</i>	4	
	<i>Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore</i>	4	
	<i>State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison</i>	4	
76...	Divinity School of the P.E. Church in Philadelphia	4	
76...	Manhattan College, New York	4	Plus 1 leaf
76...	Loyola College, Baltimore	4	
	<i>Buffalo Public Library</i>	4	
80...	Claremont Colleges, Claremont, Calif.	3	
80...	Syracuse University	3	
80...	Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.	3	
80...	Fordham University, New York	3	
	<i>Detroit Public Library</i>	3	
	<i>New Bedford Public Library</i>	3	



TABLE 3—Continued

Relative Rank	Name and Place	Number of Volumes (Exclusive of Duplicates)	Remarks
84...	Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.	2	
84...	Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.	2	
84...	Wells College, Aurora, N.Y.	2	
84...	Auburn Theological Seminary, Auburn, N.Y.	2	
84...	University of West Virginia, Morgantown	2	
84...	University of Pittsburgh	2	
	<i>St. Louis Mercantile Library</i>	2	
84...	University of Arkansas, Fayetteville	2	
84...	Miami University, Oxford, Ohio	2	
84...	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	2	Plus 1 leaf
	<i>Troy Public Library</i>	2	
	<i>Newburyport, Massachusetts, Public Library</i>	2	
84...	U.S. Army War College, Washington, D.C.	2	
94...	Tulane University, New Orleans	1	Plus 3 leaves
94...	Union College, Schenectady	1	Librarian's estimate
94...	Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa.	1	
94...	Macalester College, St. Paul, Minn.	1	
94...	University of California, Los Angeles	1	
	<i>Riverside, California, Public Library</i>	1	
94...	Colby College, Waterville, Maine	1	
	<i>Hackley Public Library, Muskegon, Mich.</i>	1	
94...	University of Washington, Seattle	1	
94...	University of Wisconsin, Madison	1	
94...	Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.	1	
	<i>Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass.</i>	1	
	<i>Los Angeles Public Library</i>	1	
94...	Grinnell College, Grinnell, Ia.	1	
94...	Iowa State Library, Des Moines	1	
	<i>Lynn, Massachusetts, Public Library</i>	1	
	<i>Connecticut State Library, Hartford</i>	1	
94...	U.S. Military Academy, West Point	1	
94...	Ohio State University, Columbus	1	
94...	Tufts College, Tufts, Mass.	1	
94...	College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.	1	
	<i>Rockford, Ill., Public Library</i>	1	
94...	George Washington University, Washington, D.C.	1	
	<i>Historical Society, Reformed Church, Lancaster, Pa.</i>	1	
94...	Chicago Theological Seminary	1	
94...	Western Theological Seminary, Evanston, Ill.	1	
94...	University of Kansas, Lawrence	1	
94...	Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.	1	
94...	Pratt Institute, Brooklyn	1	

mentioned by Sparr. It now not only wins admittance to his "first 100" list but ranks fifty-third.

But in spite of the increase in incunabula holdings of libraries in the United States during the last decade, the incomparable richness of the European libraries in this field is not to be gainsaid. This richness was to be expected, of course, for incunabula came into being on the European continent and all which are treasured elsewhere in the world had to be carried there. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that in Table 2 all five of the libraries located outside Europe are in the United States. The more one studies the complete Sparr list the more one is impressed by the wealth of Europe's incunabula holdings. The average American library holds even a single incunabula as one of its most precious possessions, while numerous European libraries, whose very names are unfamiliar to most American librarians, are listed as having a thousand incunabula, or more. Libraries of religious orders (such as the Stiftsbibliothek der Benediktiner-Erzabtei zu Panonhalma, Hungary, and the Stiftsbibliothek im Kloster Strahov at Prague), libraries of princely families (such as the libraries of the Polish families of Zamoyski and Przezdziecki and the Czechoslovakian family of Lobkowicz), libraries of small European towns, and of little-known universities—each of these possesses far larger holdings of incunabula than can be boasted by our largest and richest universities. On the other hand, even when we have extended our list from 57 to the 444 in Table 1 there is still practically no representation outside Europe and the United States. In fact only 3 such libraries are reported: the Biblioteca Nacional of Mexico (120 volumes), the Lytton University Library at Aligarh, British India (150 volumes), and the Public Library of Auckland, New Zealand (100 volumes). The last is the sole representative in the southern hemisphere.

But to return to the question which started this excursus. Of the 236 United States libraries interrogated by the writer 234 replied, a percentage of response which would seem to show a rather widespread interest in the matter. Thirty-two re-

ported that they held no incunabula and 10 reported that they were unable to answer. The remaining 192 answers (in a few cases consolidated, as is explained in the last column of the table) are listed in Table 3 in the order of the respective holdings of each library. The list speaks for itself. College and university libraries—with whose holdings we were particularly concerned—are printed in Roman type and are numbered consecutively. The names of all other libraries (public, national, special, etc.) are printed in italics.

A CHAPTER IN THE UNWRITTEN HISTORY OF  
THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS FROM  
JANUARY 17 TO APRIL 5, 1899

THE APPOINTMENT OF HERBERT PUTNAM AS LIBRARIAN

THORVALD SOLBERG

THE tradition that the appointment of the librarian of Congress be nonpolitical and for life and that the appointee must be qualified for library service was established by the long and distinguished term of Ainsworth Rand Spofford. Mr. Spofford entered the Library of Congress in 1861 and he became librarian-in-chief on December 1, 1864, following the resignation of John G. Stephenson. He held this position for thirty-three years and, in the library reorganization of 1897 after the congressional investigation under Representative Lemuel Ely Quigg, he was continued as assistant librarian until his death in 1908.

But a break in the tradition occurred when John Russell Young, a newspaperman and a politician, was appointed librarian of Congress on July 1, 1897. Mr. Young died on January 17, 1899, and directly after his death a large number of applicants, few of whom were equipped with the desirable kind of training and experience, applied for his position. Among them was an old friend of Mr. Young, a newspaperman whom he had appointed as chief clerk of the Library. For a time he had also occupied the position of chief of the Prints Division. One day this man surprised me by coming to me in the Copyright Office and saying: "Shake hands with the next librarian of Congress." This was a distinct shock. He was willing to talk freely about the matter and told me of many prominent people who, he affirmed, were pledged to support him in his proposal to secure the appointment as librarian of Congress. One was Theodore Roosevelt, then governor of New York. I was unpre-

pared to doubt the truth of his assertions, but felt that some action was demanded to insure the escape of our national library from so serious a result. His appointment would mean turning over the position of librarian to the politicians.

I immediately sought David Hutcheson, superintendent of the Reading Room, and James C. M. Hanson, chief of the Catalog Division, and was assured by both that they would unite with me to do all within our power to avert what we felt would prove a catastrophe. We agreed that the first necessity was to convince Mr. Roosevelt that this particular applicant should not be urged upon the President for appointment as librarian of Congress. The actual situation at the Library must be explained to Mr. Roosevelt so that he might understand how necessary it was to obtain as the next librarian someone who was clearly competent to take over the administration of the Library—someone with the knowledge, experience, and, above all, the will and the courage to meet the difficult problems of library administration that were certain to confront the new incumbent.

We decided that the man to intervene with Mr. Roosevelt was one of his intimate friends, Seth Low, then president of Columbia University. Through a friend of Mrs. Solberg—Mrs. William Manning, of Brooklyn—I secured an interview with Mr. Low. He listened patiently and attentively to my account and expressed his belief that Mr. Roosevelt's support of an unfit applicant was wrong and dangerous. He agreed to see the governor at the first opportunity. But he warned me that it would be difficult to induce Roosevelt to withdraw any support he may have promised.

As the next step in directing the intelligent choice of a librarian for our national library Mr. Hutcheson, Mr. Hanson, and I decided that the normal procedure would be for a group of outstanding librarians of the country to select the person upon whom they could agree as the best choice for the post and then obtain an interview with President McKinley and urge his appointment. So we made a list of prominent librarians and invited them to meet us at the Murray Hill Hotel in New York. Not all who were invited came, but a fairly representative

group was present, including Dr. Ernest C. Richardson, of Princeton, Mr. Henry Carr, librarian of Scranton Public Library, Mr. R. R. Bowker, and William Coolidge Lane, librarian of Harvard University. Melvil Dewey, who promptly sent an encouraging message, could not then leave Albany; and Herbert Putnam sent his regrets. Fortunately for our cause, Mr. Lane was at that time president of the American Library Association and therefore had authority to lay the matter before that organization. He declared his intention of taking suitable action. All the librarians present approved our procedure, but not all were equally active in coming to its support. Among those "who finally rallied to the aid of the library, perhaps no one stood out more prominently than Richard R. Bowker. He was not only a bibliographer and librarian, but a business executive, an author, a journalist, and a man of affairs, who knew just what to do under the circumstances and how to do it."<sup>1</sup>

The interchange of letters and telegrams at once became considerable. We had an earnest desire to reach any outstanding personalities who might be interested and who could and would appeal to the President. Mr. Hanson wrote an excellent letter to Charles Kendall Adams, president of the University of Wisconsin, pointing out:

The point of vital importance now is to secure delay in the making of the appointment long enough to enable men of influence and weight to lay before the President the importance to the Library, to scholars and writers, both at home and abroad, that the man now selected be qualified by experience, executive ability, and intellectual acquirements.<sup>2</sup>

After the movement was launched Hutcheson, Hanson, and I were very reticent as to our part in it. Hanson was the first to break our self-imposed silence. In an article published in the February, 1924, issue of the periodical *Scandinavia*, he said:

There came in 1899 a crisis in the history of the Library, when for a time it seemed that a certain political appointment, likely to check the future

<sup>1</sup> J. C. M. Hanson, "The Library of Congress and its new catalogue: some unwritten history," in W. W. Bishop and Andrew Keogh (eds.), *Essays offered to Herbert Putnam* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1929), p. 191.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 190.

development of the institution, perhaps for all time, was unavoidable. Mr. Solberg was one of the very few at that time who clearly foresaw that should the Library of Congress become the real National Library of the United States, and assume its place as a great center of co-operative activity and scholarly research, to which writers and investigators, educational institutions and learned societies, here and abroad, might look for help and guidance, there was only one thing to do, to secure as administrative head, the strongest and best man available.

It was chiefly due to his wise, energetic and unselfish effort, combined with rare courage and initiative, at a time when others had given up all hope, that the American Library Association and leading librarians were aroused to a realization of what was at stake.<sup>3</sup>

Five years later Mr. Hanson again was quite frank in his reference to this period in the Library's history. He declared his satisfaction at Mr. Young's designation of Ainsworth Spofford as chief assistant librarian, of David Hutcheson as superintendent of the Reading Room, and of my own advancement to the new official position of register of copyrights (Mr. Hanson's appointment as chief of the Catalog Division followed promptly). But in the selection of incumbents for the minor positions the situation was entirely different:

.... there swooped down on Congress, the President, and the library, an eager horde of would-be librarians. There were needy journalists, clergymen without a call, teachers unable to teach, unsuccessful authors, actors without engagements, college and university graduates whose mental development must have been arrested soon after graduation, and the usual assortment of lame ducks from states east and west. All were brimful of confidence that their great love of books and literary inclinations would enable them to solve all difficulties which might arise in connection with the management of a great library.<sup>4</sup>

After these applications were conscientiously struggled with, recommendations for appointments were submitted by the department heads, but they were returned with the rather curt note from Mr. Young stating that in appointing heads of departments merit and experience had been given due considera-

<sup>3</sup> J. C. M. Hanson, "Thorvald Solberg: the first register of copyrights," *Scandinavia*, I (February, 1924), 77-78.

<sup>4</sup> J. C. M. Hanson, "The Library of Congress and its new catalogue: some unwritten history," in W. W. Bishop and Andrew Keogh (eds.), *op. cit.*, pp. 179-80.



tion; from now on it would be the duty of the librarian to give heed to the wishes of Congress. Positions were soon thereafter filled by men who not only lacked experience but who had passed the age when new knowledge is readily assimilated. "On comparing notes with the Superintendent of the Reading Room and the Register of Copyrights," said Mr. Hanson, "it was found that they had if anything been even less successful in securing the appointment of applicants of their own choice."<sup>5</sup>

Mr. Hanson described the events following Mr. Young's death as follows:

Again, there swooped down on the President and Congress a host of aspirants to a position which many of them must have considered one of comparative leisure, a sinecure in which they might pass their declining years amid pleasant and dignified surroundings, holding occasional intercourse with authors living and dead, and meeting statesmen, diplomats, and other distinguished and representative people from various parts of the country and the world. It was not difficult for one on the inside to see what the appointment of one of these applicants would mean. The experiences of the last two years had made this clear. The American Library Association did not appear to sense the importance of immediate action, or was not in a position to take the initiative. Men in Congress, e.g., Speaker Thomas Reed, Senator Platt of Connecticut, Representative Hitt of Illinois, and others, felt that something should be done, but they were busy men and perhaps not clear in their own minds as to the best course to be taken.

David Hutcheson, head of the reading room, had served members of Congress long and well. Several leading Senators came to him asking permission to submit his name to the President. He insisted that a younger man, a leading administrator, must now be selected as chief librarian.<sup>6</sup>

Melvil Dewey was approached, but when asked if he would serve he declared that he could not consider such an appointment for himself but that he was deeply interested that the right person be appointed. He promptly wrote not only to President McKinley but to the speaker of the House of Representatives, Thomas Reed, and to Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, and, of course, to Theodore Roosevelt. He also discussed the situation with Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, who thereupon took the first train to Washington to confer with Speaker Reed and Senator William Boyd Allison and to impress

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 182.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 188-89.

personally upon President McKinley how great was his responsibility that the right librarian be nominated.

Before the end of January the question as to who would be the next librarian of Congress was receiving wide attention in the press and all possible applicants for the position were discussed. Presently, however, more serious consideration of the problem found place. Some excellent newspaper contributions appeared urging that a trained librarian should be appointed. Each of the three New York daily newspapers printed a series of articles. The *New York evening post*, on January 25, 1899, contained a long article under the heading, "The national librarian," which complained that:

Senators, Representatives, office-holders in the departments and, in fact, nearly every profession except that of trained librarians are taking part in the struggle to secure this important position. . . . The President's rule should be "Get the best, without the slightest regard to political claims or backing." Anything short of this threatens grave discredit to the nation.

On January 30 the same newspaper published nearly two columns under the title: "Librarian of Congress, progress of the contest for Mr. Young's place, the question of profession and location—a great librarian wanted." And on the following day it printed another long article, "The librarian of Congress, what the President encounters in the selection of a successor to the late Mr. Young."

The *New York tribune* of January 25 gave place to a well-considered article signed "A daily user of libraries (Boston, January 21, 1899)," under the descriptive title, "The national library, the opportunity and the danger, a great librarian wanted," and it devoted two columns in the issue of January 30 to an article signed "A librarian, New York, January 26, 1899," entitled, "The Library of Congress," with subtitle, "Qualifications for a national librarian—the proper functions of the library—views of a prominent librarian." Another librarian's contribution appeared in this paper on January 31, under the title, "The President's duty to the Library, a trained librarian needed." This detailed, well-written piece, which was signed, "A librarian, New York, January 26, 1899," named the follow-

ing as persons suitable for appointment: Herbert Putnam, John R. Billings, Melvil Dewey, and F. M. Crunden.

The *New York times*, in a brief editorial on February 5, 1899, declared that "The Library requires a chief of sound executive ability, preferably a man of skill as a librarian, but in any case a man of force, energy and independence of character."

The *Philadelphia public ledger* of January 27, 1899, contained a column "Not a political appointment," which pointed out the need of a competent librarian as administrator of the Library of Congress.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler wrote a brief but convincing article which was published in the *Independent* for February 9, 1899:

At the moment, however, the President of the United States appoints the librarian, and everything depends upon his selection. On every hand unfit, half-fit and misfit candidates are being urged upon him, strong in political or personal support. Since a misstep now might be fatal to the work of the library for a generation, we earnestly hope that the President will not act hastily in the matter, but take into consideration every element of fitness in making his choice.

At this time *Harpers' weekly* requested that I write a contribution on the situation in Washington with respect to the approaching appointment of a librarian for the Library of Congress. This I did, but the article was returned without being published. Thereupon I sent it to Wendell Phillip Garrison of the *Nation* and it appeared in that magazine on March 9, 1899, under the title, "The librarianship of the Library of Congress." It is reprinted at the end of this article.

After our New York conference of librarians Mr. Lane had promptly taken pains to obtain the views of individual members of the Council of the American Library Association. He then, as president of that association, wrote a letter to President McKinley emphasizing how necessary it was that a librarian of training and experience be appointed to the post of librarian of Congress.<sup>7</sup> A memorial to the same effect from the Council of the Library Association was also sent to President McKinley.

<sup>7</sup> See Mr. Lane's correspondence in "The appointment of a librarian of Congress," *Library journal*, XXIV (March, 1899), 99-101.

The decision of the librarians and of the American Library Association was that the name of Herbert Putnam, librarian of the Boston Public Library, should be presented to the President. The task of seeing Mr. McKinley was assigned to Mr. Lane and Mr. Bowker. A lively, personal account of what took place when they visited the White House was given by Mr. Bowker on the occasion of the ovation offered Herbert Putnam on April 5, 1929—the thirtieth anniversary of his library service.<sup>8</sup> Mr. Lane, who was also a guest at the Putnam luncheon, had prepared a detailed and precise statement of the various incidents of this visit to Washington to use in case he was called upon to follow Mr. Bowker. It has never been published, but I have the typewritten copy which he gave me at that time and I have depended mainly upon it in this compilation, but with careful comparison with Mr. Bowker's text.

Mr. Lane and Mr. Bowker planned to call upon the President in Washington on February 4, 1899, and were authorized by the American Library Association to urge the appointment of Herbert Putnam as librarian of Congress. Mr. Lane was to arrive with the "Federal Express," but his train was an hour late, so he missed an appointment with Senator Lodge to go at eleven o'clock to the White House and meet President McKinley. However, Mr. Bowker, who had arrived previously in Washington, went with the Senator and arranged that the President would see Mr. Lane at one o'clock. He then went to the railroad station where he finally found Lane "talking at the moment with Mr. Solberg where I [Bowker] failed to see him, and my nearsightedness and his preoccupation nearly cost us the interview and, as later proved, nearly lost the appointment of Herbert Putnam and the great benefit to the country and the library world which has come from that appointment."<sup>9</sup>

They rushed in a waiting cab to the White House, arriving just after one o'clock, and were taken immediately to the President's office. President McKinley greeted them most affably,

<sup>8</sup> R. R. Bowker, "The appointment of Herbert Putnam as librarian of Congress," in W. W. Bishop and Andrew Keogh (eds.), *op. cit.*, pp. 15-21.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 18.

and when they urged the importance of a trained librarian in the post of librarian of Congress, he volunteered that if there were a trained librarian like Mr. Dewey or Mr. Putnam available for the position, he should be glad to appoint him. He would like particularly to appoint Mr. Putnam, for he had such pleasant remembrance of his father, the late George Palmer Putnam, who had been collector of internal revenue in New York by appointment of President Lincoln.

Mr. Lane reported that the President talked very freely. He declared that he wanted the best man for the post and was determined that the position should be kept out of politics. He said that he had tried to get Putnam and Dewey before (in the reorganization of the Library in 1897) and had appointed Young only when he could get neither Putnam nor Dewey. Mr. Lane ventured to say that he thought the President might get Mr. Putnam now if the salary were raised and if Putnam could have a free hand in making appointments and removals. The President replied that Speaker Reed had written to him that the question of salary must not stand in the way and that as to freedom in making appointments and removals, the librarian was absolutely free—neither he nor Congress had any hand in the appointments. The position was difficult, he admitted, because the congressmen were within a stone's throw and were in the habit of asking for what they wanted. But he thought the librarian could be entirely independent. He inquired as to Putnam's age, saying he thought Putnam might not get on well with Congress. Mr. Lane spoke of Putnam's experience with the Common Council of Boston, and that pleased Mr. McKinley.

Later the President advised Mr. Lane to see Speaker Reed in regard to an increased appropriation for the librarian's salary, and he authorized Lane to speak to Mr. Putnam. In referring to other candidates for the library position, the President spoke warmly of Samuel June Barrows, a retiring congressman who, he thought, might make a good librarian. Barrows, he said, had very strong recommendations and had been suggested by Secretary of State Long on his own motion. The President read part of what he described as "Mr. Dewey's very sensible letter."

Also, he said that he knew well James Hulme Canfield, then librarian of Columbia University, but did not think he was the proper person to be librarian of Congress. He said the chief clerk of the Library of Congress was strongly backed by committees of both houses, but he did not approve of him.

Mr. Lane saw Speaker Reed after a committee meeting. Reed was heartily in sympathy with having a *librarian* for the congressional library and had written to the President that "he must wait to see what the American Library Association had to say." He said it was evident that Congress must not be prevented from getting what it needed on account of the librarian's salary—a great national library was wanted and it must have the best professional service. Reed expressed indignation at Mr. Young's appointment and thought present conditions in the Library were bad. He said that a librarian who was firm could have the full support of Congress without yielding any favors. "These fellows [members of Congress] soon find out whom they can squeeze, but they respect a man they cannot."

One of the embarrassing incidents of this crisis was President McKinley's offer of the librarianship to Samuel June Barrows. After the death of Librarian Young, Mr. Barrows wrote to Mr. Lane saying that his name had been presented to the President by Secretary of State Long for nomination as librarian of Congress and requesting Lane's support. As president of the American Library Association, Mr. Lane replied that he could not comply with Mr. Barrows' request since the library profession emphasized the importance of library training and experience in that position.

When Mr. Bowker was waiting in the anteroom of the White House on February 4 he had encountered Mr. Barrows and in conversation with him "told him frankly that the members of the American Library Association favored a trained librarian for the post if one could be had, but that in default of such, his [Barrows'] candidacy seemed preferable to that of others; and Mr. Barrows replied as frankly that if such a librarian were in the running he would not himself be a candidate."<sup>10</sup>

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 17.

On February 6, when Herbert Putnam was offered the librarianship of the Library of Congress by Mr. Lane, as authorized by the President, he did not at first accept because he was reluctant to give up his librarianship of the Boston Public Library, a post which promised large usefulness without the political complications possibly connected with the national library. Moreover, "The salary in Boston was fairly adequate, while that in Washington was only \$5,000, although the cost of living there was much higher."<sup>11</sup> That inequality in salaries both Speaker Reed and Senator Lodge had promised to have rectified. Mr. Bowker's conversation with Mr. Barrows seemed to clear the way. At last Mr. Putnam was induced to assent "to acceptance of the opportunity and this word was duly transmitted to President McKinley as well as to Senator Lodge."<sup>12</sup>

But Mr. Barrows' ambition had meantime been stiffened and, in place of fulfilling his word to Mr. Bowker, he insisted on right-of-way to the position. Under these circumstances Mr. Putnam withdrew his acceptance—to the President's expressed regret—and on February 15 the nomination of Mr. Barrows was transmitted to the Senate where it was referred to the Library Committee. However, Mr. Barrows had not impressed the senators favorably and on February 28, Senator Hansbrough, as acting chairman of the Library Committee, reported adversely on the nomination. On March 3 the Senate considered and debated the report, but on March 4, a quarter of an hour before final adjournment at noon, the Senate on motion proceeded to other business and the nomination failed of vote pro or con. President McKinley then formally proffered a recess appointment to Mr. Barrows which, in view of the senatorial situation, he declined.

On March 7, 1899, Mr. Lane again wrote to the President regarding Mr. Putnam. Mr. McKinley then, on March 13, made the recess appointment of Herbert Putnam as librarian of Congress. He took the oath of office on April 5, 1899, and the appointment was duly confirmed by the Senate on December 13, 1899. Thus was selected the man who has since served

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 19.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 20.



with such distinction and who has brought the Library of Congress to a place where it ranks as one of the three great national libraries of the world.<sup>13</sup>

#### THE LIBRARIANSHIP OF THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

BY THORVALD SOLBERG

(Reprinted from the *Nation* of March 9, 1899)

The present is a critical moment in the history of the Library of Congress, which is without an executive head. The man who shall finally be appointed to this responsible position will affect the Library, for weal or for woe, for a long generation. Even under ordinary conditions the responsibility of this appointment would be great, but there are peculiar circumstances connected with the librarianship at this time which make the situation unusually grave, and which demand the most serious consideration.

On the 30th of June, 1897, the Library of Congress consisted of a collection of books, maps, and such art works, engravings, etc., as had been received through the operation of the copyright law, crowded into inadequate quarters in the Capitol, with a staff of forty-two people, consisting simply of a chief and his clerks; the force being practically without organization. On January 1, 1898, six months later, the Library found itself spread out in its new, palatial quarters on Capitol Hill, covering acres of ground, with a force, besides the Librarian, of one hundred and thirty-two people, divided by legislative enactment into nine departments under subordinate heads. While the material part of the Library was thus promptly housed in one of the solidest structures in the United States, the library organization itself, formed only to the extent of filling the places provided by Congress, was like a huge, inflated balloon wobbling about in mid-air until those numerous anchor lines which true organization require should have been attached to its firm, material base and drawn properly taut. The last six months of 1897 (the first six months of the reorganization of the Library) were consumed in making the new appointments required by the act of reorganization and in removing the collections into the new building—two difficult tasks, the proper execution of which would have fully justified this amount of time. Since that period more than a year has passed; and with a view to a correct understanding of what will devolve upon the new Librarian, it is desirable to state frankly what the situation is at this moment.

The late Librarian failed to adjust the elaborate and intricate organization to the great structure, and, although nineteen months have elapsed

<sup>13</sup> For an interesting and enlightening article on the Library of Congress and its problems see Herbert Putnam, "The Library of Congress," *Atlantic monthly*, LXXXV (February, 1900), 145-58.

since the reconstitution of the Library, the departments, with the exception of the three principal ones, have not even been located, and, excepting the reading-room and to some extent the Copyright Office, none is settled and fully equipped for its work, but is, as it were, merely camping in some one of the magnificent halls of the Library building, with such temporary fittings and furnishings as could be obtained. Here, then, is one important task awaiting the new Librarian.

Of necessity, the act reorganizing the Library was drawn in advance of the removal to the new building, and without the aid of the knowledge which is gained only by experience in administering a large library on modern lines. It is consequently noticeably deficient in some directions. Salaries were provided for positions which are still non-existent, and some of which are likely to remain so; while other positions which a trained librarian, experienced in handling a library of parallel importance, would at once have seen to be absolutely necessary, were omitted altogether. The act referred to provides for a librarian and a force of 132 clerks. The duties of the librarian, besides the proper general supervision, involve the expenditure of all moneys appropriated for the purchase of books and supplies; and yet there was no provision for so important an adjutant as a "chief clerk." This defect has been made good only in this year's appropriations. The act failed to make any provision for an order and supply department. Every librarian of experience knows the importance attaching to this division of a library, and how great is the necessity for its proper equipment. But this necessity is especially great in the case of the Library of Congress because of the arrears in the book-purchasing, which will require special efforts in order that the lamentable gaps in the collection shall be made good. It should be remembered, also, that, as the copyright law provides the Library with copies of the ordinary current publications, the buying must be largely of foreign books, and must be supplemented by well-devised and intelligently carried-out methods for filling up gaps in the equally important classes of literature not obtainable by purchase. In other words, this department of the Library should be one of weight, with a well-instructed, competent man at its head, supported by an adequate clerical force.

At present, the serious difficulties due to inadequate provisions for administration, such as we have cited, are met as best they can be by extemporized and unsatisfactory expedients. The incoming librarian must face the difficult problem of carrying on this great institution with an ill-adjusted and insufficient clerical equipment, until he can clearly formulate the urgent necessity of the Library in these particulars, properly present the same to Congress, and obtain provision for its administration commensurate with its needs. It is to be borne in mind that the Library, so far as its collection of books, maps, engravings, newspapers, and music is concerned, stands first of all the libraries in the country, while in its provisions as to administration

it is probably behind the half-dozen leading municipal libraries in the United States.

But, serious as are the problems outlined above, the new incumbent will be met by yet another even more grave and fundamental, and which should be dealt with at the start if justice is to be done to the work of the Library, or true success secured for himself as its executive head. As yet, no comprehensive, coherent scheme of administration for the Library seems to have been applied or even framed. The result is, that there is neither the co-ordination nor the cohesion desirable in the different divisions of the Library, nor do they make a homogeneous whole or intelligently coöperate with one another. As a consequence, there is waste by reason of duplication of work and because the different departments work toward diverse ends. This is probably not from want of desire to coöperate, but simply because no general plan of work has been established so that each division of the Library has its understood part, and the work accomplished in any one department adds to the general advancement of the whole. No satisfactory result can be obtained in the long run without some such comprehensive scheme of administration; and it is clear that the new librarian will need to devise one first of all.

In doing this he will encounter his most serious difficulty. We have already referred to the inadequacy of the force, but this is exhibited even more in quality than in quantity. The selection of the present heads of departments in the Library of Congress was undoubtedly conscientious; but, as a consequence of giving way to the strong political and social pressure brought to bear in behalf of incompetent or otherwise disqualified clerks in subordinate positions, these executive heads were left without proper material. The evil is not to be measured simply by the number of incompetents. The method of appointment instils an insidious poison which in time contaminates the whole force, rendering discipline practically impossible, and inevitably leading to disaster.

## THE SCHOLAR AS LIBRARIAN

TO THE MEMORY OF ADOLF VON HARNACK

FELIX E. HIRSCH

HE IS one of the inexplicable men of genius—men that appear only at long intervals of time but for whose lives and labors the world is a little brighter and better. Such men belong to the ages." In these words a noted American theologian, George W. Richards, praises his great German colleague, the late Adolf von Harnack, whom he calls one of "the foremost historians of the church of all time." Not only the Protestant church has a right to be proud of Harnack. He served his country and mankind in more than one capacity; not the least among his manifold merits is that he brought the Prussian libraries to the highest level they have ever reached. The learned world is accustomed to thinking of Adolf Harnack as author of *What is Christianity?* and the *History of dogma*, as historian of the Prussian Academy of Sciences, and as president of that famous research foundation, Kaiser Wilhelm Gesellschaft. But not everyone remembers that the greatest German scholar in this century was also a librarian—at least by avocation.

Harnack is the last in a long line of distinguished German scholars who combined teaching and research with library work. But whereas as a scholar he was equal to the best of them, as a librarian he surpassed them all. Liebnitz, whom Harnack resembled in so many ways, the brothers Grimm, the philologist Christian Heyne, the historian Friedrich Wilken—all had devoted part of their time to library administration. By some scholars the library post was regarded as more or less of a sinecure; the Grimms felt it an encroachment upon their valuable time. Others, like Wilken in Heidelberg, undertook their duties seriously and deserved well of the libraries they adminis-

tered. A generation before Harnack, Richard Lepsius, the great Egyptologist, had served as librarian-in-chief of the Royal Library in Berlin. At the time of his appointment that institution was in a deplorable condition. His predecessor had not been equal to his task, and the government had neglected the needs of the library, which was then located in a ramshackle old building. An impartial and authoritative observer, Theodor Mommsen, declared in parliament that it was a disgrace to the German nation that the Royal Library was one of the worst of its kind in the world. Lepsius, who was at home in all great European libraries, knew the weakness of his institution. His ideal was to improve the Royal Library so that it might rival in some measure the Library of the British Museum. Enjoying a world-wide reputation and being a skilful organizer, he was able to impress both government and court in Berlin, with the result that the budget of the library was increased and the service improved. Moreover, he secured a site in the heart of the city, Unter den Linden, where a large library building could be erected. But in spite of all his energy and distinction he could not master the bureaucratic difficulties that were put in his way and did not live to see the new edifice.

Lepsius seemed to be the last great scholar to head the Royal Library *im Nebenamt*. His successor, Wilmanns, devoted all his energies to the institution, neglecting his own research interests. The two decades he held the newly created office of director-general brought progress in many directions. Library work now became a recognized profession with entrance examinations, etc. The position of the Royal Library was generally strengthened, the funds were increased, the academically trained staff was almost doubled, and some important bibliographical enterprises were begun. These improvements were not due chiefly to Wilmanns' efficiency or ingenuity, although, in spite of certain limitations, he was an excellent librarian. He would never have obtained them if Friedrich Althoff, the virtual dictator of the Prussian university administration, had not felt their urgent need and fought for them. Althoff, the only genius the German bureaucracy produced under the empire, had in mind the ideal

which Lepsius had visualized before: he wanted to give the Royal Library a place in Europe next to the national libraries in Paris and London. Instinctively he felt that Wilmanns was not the type of man to do such creative work; he was too much of a library tyrant and too little of an intellectual leader. The best scholar in Prussia seemed to Althoff just good enough for the task. Therefore, a few years before Wilmanns actually retired, he asked Adolf Harnack to take over the duties of director-general. A theologian head of the biggest library in the country? The historian of early Christianity in charge of a large and complicated administration? At first the idea seemed incongruous, another of those whims for which Althoff was so often criticized. But he knew why he wanted Harnack and only Harnack. It was not merely because of Harnack's unquestioned scholarship. It was much more important that his candidate should be a man of vision. When Harnack had been elected a member of the Prussian Academy of Sciences more than a decade ago, Theodor Mommsen had praised him, because he—like few of his contemporaries—understood the problem of modern scholarly work: to organize successful co-operation where one man was no longer able to achieve the goal. Here, in the Royal Library, was a great chance to apply this understanding on a large scale. Harnack himself was rather doubtful and refused the appointment after a period of reflection. He explained his feelings to Althoff in a letter of October 15, 1903, in which he said: "I cannot feel confident that I should achieve anything satisfactory in that position; on the other hand I would not like to be merely a figurehead. I could not find the good humor and courage to put my shoulder to that badly greased wheel, and one soon becomes a sorry figure without such courage."

#### HARNACK'S VISIT TO AMERICAN LIBRARIES

Harnack's relations with American scholars had always been cordial, and Harvard twice offered him a professorship. The second time (in 1893), President Eliot had stressed in his letter of invitation the fact that an absolute freedom from all restric-

tions—governmental, academic, or social—the freedom of thought and speech, would be a weighty consideration for Harnack, who was just fighting the hardest theological battle of his life. Harnack, however, refused the offer and gave Althoff notice of his decision, adding words that now impress us very deeply: "I hope that a Prussian will never have to emigrate from his fatherland because of lack of academic freedom." The year 1904 brought a new experience for Harnack—an experience which apparently influenced his attitude toward library work to a considerable extent: he paid his only visit to the United States. He came to represent Germany at an international meeting of scholars held in connection with the Exposition in St. Louis. There he read a paper on the relation between ecclesiastical and general history which is a masterpiece of lucidity and broad conception. This address and his lectures at Harvard and Yale earned him an unusual popularity among American scholars—a popularity which inspired the German government after the World War to offer him the post of ambassador in Washington.

Another aspect of Harnack's American journey is more important to us here. He now had an opportunity to see the leading libraries of this country in operation and to compare the service they gave with that of their European rivals. He was amazed at their technical superiority. There are still some men alive who were with him when he visited American libraries thirty-five years ago. One of them, Professor William Adams Brown of Union Theological Seminary, recalls the following characteristic incident:

I was taking Professor Harnack, at his request, to visit Columbia College Library, and we explained the system of delivering books. Harnack was interested in putting it to the proof and suggested one of his own books as the subject of the experiment. In less time than I can say the book was delivered by a small page whose age might have brought him under the proposed Child Labor Law. When Harnack saw this boy, he remarked that it did not seem necessary that a man should hold a Doctorate of Philosophy from a German university in order to perform the functions which were required in delivering books in a modern library and declared his intention of going back to Berlin to see what practical consequences he could draw from this new and revolutionary insight.



Two surviving members of the staff of the Library of Congress who came into contact with Harnack on the occasion of his visit there gained very different impressions regarding his interest in library matters. One of them remembers the precision of the questions Harnack put before them, which made it immediately clear to him how well the illustrious visitor understood the problems of library service. The other former staff member recollects from his conversation that "Harnack showed only the interest that any scholar would have shown when attempting to consult a large library."

In retrospect, Harnack often commented on how much he had learned on his American trip. It was a glorious time, he wrote to his colleague Holl: his visit to the United States had left an unforgettable impression. He saw the problems of scholarly work in the machine age clearer than ever before. And there was no doubt in his mind that at least the American public and educational libraries were above the European level. In 1911 he wrote frankly: "Regarding library technique and administration America holds a very high position; we in Europe have gratefully learned from the younger sister and have still something to learn. . . ." He devoted an article to Andrew Carnegie, who did so much for the development of the American libraries. While praising his philanthropic genius in the highest terms, Harnack pointed out the defects which may be found in such a system of benefactions. He had observed on his journey that while it was comparatively easy to obtain money for new foundations of all kinds in America it was much more difficult to secure funds for maintenance, staff training, and salaries. Discussing the American idea of self-education, he cautioned against overrating the importance of institutions as such; buildings, he said, were not as important as the persons to whom they were intrusted.

THE NEW DIRECTOR-GENERAL AND HIS TASK IN  
THE ROYAL LIBRARY

The opportunity soon came for Harnack to practice the insights he had gained in American libraries. In March, 1905, only a few months after his return, he was urged by the Prussian

Minister of Education to take over the leadership of the Royal Library as acting director-general. This time he accepted with little hesitation. His reply is characteristic: he begged the Minister for indulgence whenever his abilities should not be commensurate with his intentions. "I am deeply convinced of the greatness of the task and of the importance which it, rightly understood, possesses for the progress of scholarship and for the fatherland." Harnack remained professor of church history at Berlin University, becoming librarian only *im Nebenberuf*. Why did he accept the new responsibility which would doubtless add much to his already heavy burden? He gave a convincing explanation in a letter to his friend Martin Rade:

You learn to know the world only as far as you influence it. My new position will not make me so much a "librarian" as an organizer. . . . I have *done* so little in my life, and I would like to supplement my lectures and writings in modest manner by an action from which the whole community profits. The church did not offer me an opportunity to do something, and such work would now come too late for me.

He further revealed his motives for this unexpected step when he wrote to Holl that the knowledge gained from his new duty would supplement his understanding of history, since he believed that every historian should be acquainted with at least one branch of public administration.

Harnack's surprise appointment was not universally well received. His own friends feared he would be drawn away from the theological battlefield. But much keener were the misgivings among the leading men of the library profession. They were shocked by the decision of the Minister of Education and did not hide their deep resentment. The *Zeitschrift für Bibliothekswesen* (edited by Paul Schwenke, who was soon to become first director under Harnack) expressed the common feeling in this way: "The fact that the important position which has been held by an eminent librarian for two decades has now been given *im Nebenamt* to a nonexpert, though he is a scholar of world-wide reputation, is depressing for the members of the library profession." Even stronger was a letter of protest which Wilhelm Erman, the director of Breslau University Library,

wrote to Althoff. His sense of justice was affronted, and he interpreted the appointment of an outsider as a return to the evil practices of earlier days. Althoff, however, was not at a loss for an answer. Harnack, he replied, had two indispensable qualifications for the leadership of the Royal Library—eminence as a scholar and skill as an administrator. While Harnack could not claim fulfilment of the third requirement—knowledge of library technique—Althoff urged that he would have the competent technical assistance of his first director. This answer silenced the opposition though it did not entirely escape criticism. Althoff's arguments were questioned again only recently by Georg Leyh in his review of Agnes von Zahn-Harnack's biography of her father, although he, too, admires Harnack's achievements.

The fears of the library profession were allayed by the speech Harnack made when introduced to his new office. "Never had anybody talked to us here in that manner," records Emil Jacobs, one of the leading men on the staff of the Royal Library. Harnack began his speech with the personal remark that he had entertained the highest conception of the library profession and its functions throughout his whole academic career. This was no exaggeration. There was no other professor in Germany who had such an intimate knowledge of libraries. One of his best friends, Oskar von Gebhardt, was among the country's leading librarians, and close collaboration with Gebhardt had given him many insights into the problems of library routine as well as an understanding of the difficulties of reconciling productive scholarship with administrative tasks. He had spent a large part of his life examining manuscripts in many countries. Harnack's son, Axel, himself a librarian, says: "The library profession was made familiar to him by his research in manuscripts and their catalogs." His history of early Christian literature contains a masterpiece of bibliography, and the theologian who liked to spend his leisure studying atlases, railway timetables, and historical, political, or genealogical handbooks had certainly a feeling for the intricacies of reference work. Harnack's address made it plain that he did not intend to use

his new position as a sinecure. He presented a program of greatly increased activity and indicated that he expected commensurate increases in the budget. He frankly discussed the fact that the Royal Library was no longer equal to its task. The institution was far behind the British Museum and the Library of Congress, especially with respect to foreign literature; only by a great effort, he said, would it be possible to fill the gaps. A master of parable, he likened the care of libraries to the cultivation of a forest: our children and grandchildren would have to suffer because of today's negligence, but they would in time enjoy the shade of trees we had planted. In a few sentences he gave his idea of modern librarianship. The librarian must withdraw from political, religious, and social controversies; "within these walls exist no parties." His duties were threefold: to select, to administer, and to serve. Harnack vowed never to become a mere custodian; none of his staff should remain tied down to purely routine tasks; each man should be placed in charge of one particular aspect of the work in which he would be expected to possess special knowledge in addition to the encyclopedic knowledge necessary to all librarians. Finally, he asked for mutual confidence. This strong personal appeal made a lasting impression on his audience. The contact was established.

Harnack now paid a daily visit to the library, coming at noon and spending an hour and a half or two hours there. He would have been unable to accomplish his work in the library had he not found the ideal collaborator in the person of Paul Schwenke, his first director. The two men, different in so many ways, complemented each other perfectly. Harnack represented the Royal Library to the outside world, particularly to the Emperor, who was his personal friend, to the government, to academic circles, and to Berlin society in general. He laid the plans and gave the general directions for the work of the Royal Library and dealt with the affairs of the Prussian university libraries where the *Beirat für Bibliothekswesen* was concerned. At one time Schwenke had perhaps hoped to succeed Wilmanns as director-general, but he gave Harnack the most loyal co-

operation. He saved him from being submerged in detail, put his plans into practice, and remained tactfully in the background. In the necrologue for his first director Harnack revealed how they managed to live in harmony throughout fifteen years. There were no regulations dividing their responsibilities, but because Schwenke was always willing to subordinate his own opinion to the welfare of his institution, no conflict ever arose. He usually had a large share in the formation of decisions, but he never questioned the final authority of the Director-General. Harnack's relations with the other members of the fast-growing library staff were no less cordial. He soon knew all of them, their functions and special interests. He immediately broke with the tradition established under Wilmanns that the director-general must do everything himself. And he kept his promise that his staff should not remain mere clerical assistants, for he freed the professional librarians from subaltern duties, gave them a greater independence, and employed their expert knowledge particularly in the problems of book selection which had suffered very badly under Wilmann's autocratic management.

#### THE ROYAL LIBRARY AS NATIONAL LIBRARY

The new director-general was not content merely to change the methods of book selection. He quickly recognized that the money available for purchases was insufficient if the Royal Library was going to be the national library of Germany, and he acted accordingly. The sums he was able to procure were astounding. The Prussian bureaucracy made concessions to him which would have seemed unbelievable under Wilmanns and which they would have denied to any librarian not invested with Harnack's authority as a scholar. Althoff had been right on that point. Although there was a strong upward trend in the financial resources of all the great libraries of the country, so rapid an increase in the budget figures as took place in the Royal Library was unparalleled. Shortly after Harnack had taken office he persuaded the ministry to grant an extraordinary sum of 350,000 marks for the purchase of Prince Chigi's

book collection, and, when that project had miscarried, he was permitted to spend the whole amount in filling gaps in the collections of the Royal Library. Yet this was only one item in a larger program. Harnack did not rest until he had increased the ordinary book budget from about 150,000 marks in 1905 to 316,000 marks in 1913. The increased sum enabled the Royal Library to fulfil the functions of a national library in two directions. It became possible to buy the important foreign publications on a larger scale than was feasible in any other German library, and there was no longer any difficulty in purchasing the bulk of the German book production, exclusive of the books which were considered worthless. In the latter context it must be noted that Harnack never believed in completeness merely for its own sake. "The superfluous is always injurious; that holds true for the great libraries, too," he said. The Royal Library had formerly accessioned only about two-thirds of the new German books, but the impending competition by the Deutsche Bücherei in Leipzig induced the Director-General in Berlin to change his policy. Harnack dealt with the problems created by the foundation of the Deutsche Bücherei in a long essay, "Die Benutzung der Königlichen Bibliothek und die deutsche Nationalbibliothek" (1912); it is one of his most illuminating contributions to library science. He immediately grasped the fact that the new institution in Leipzig might prevent a full expansion of the Royal Library such as he had in mind. In his opinion there was no need for the special collection of all German books published since 1913, which the fathers of the Deutsche Bücherei planned. Such a collection could never become a true national library, an institution which cannot grow out of an improvisation. Only a library which had acquired the German publications for many generations—like the libraries in Berlin and Munich—could fulfil that mission. He stressed the fact that in the twentieth century nearly every research project requires the use of books in foreign languages: "Scholarship is now again as international as it was in the Middle Ages, but the nations use their own tongues." Looking today at Harnack's argument, we find that he was right in

principle, although we admit that the Deutsche Bücherei has served adequately some limited purposes.

In this same essay Harnack states bluntly that it would not be enough if the Royal Library were enabled to collect only the current literature: "Our task must be to save for our fatherland as many precious old books and particularly old German manuscripts as possible." Personally he was not so much interested in incunabula (which he could safely leave in the expert hands of Schwenke) as he was in manuscripts. There his own vast experience as a scholar guided him. He had not only done pioneer work in the bibliography of early Christian documents in general but had also personally discovered a most valuable old manuscript, the Codex Rossanensis. Therefore we are not surprised when his son, Axel, tells us that Harnack believed manuscripts were the heart of the scholarly library. On visits to other libraries his first inquiry invariably related to the character of the manuscript collection. Under such leadership, the Royal Library—whose manuscript resources had been far inferior to those of the Court and State Library in Munich, not to mention those of the national libraries abroad—made new headway. The collection of *Orientalia*, later to be made an independent division, was greatly increased, and the accessions of occidental manuscripts were even more significant. The liberality of truly magnificent donors was enlisted to assist his purchases, and a characteristic example of their generosity was the Evangeluary of Prüm, a most precious manuscript of the ninth century, which Harnack secured for the library in 1908. He also enlarged the holdings of modern manuscripts by acquiring the letters of Theodor Mommsen and the papers of the brothers Grimm, Richard Lepsius, and Treitschke. The scientist and philanthropist, Ludwig Darmstaedter, presented the library with his unique collection of autographs of great scholars, which collection continued to expand under Harnack's supervision. The donor subsequently stated that his regard for the reputation of the Director-General had been largely responsible for this remarkable gift, and an even more spectacular benefaction—some autographed masterpieces of Bach, Beethoven,



Mozart, Haydn, and Mendelssohn—was the result of Harnack's intimate friendship with the banker Ernst von Mendelssohn. These became part of a growing music collection which Harnack had been careful to rescue from the neglect into which it had fallen under Wilmanns. Another department that profited immensely under Harnack's personal attention was the map collection, which gradually became so comprehensive that the general staff was able to use it extensively during the World War. Finally, in 1920, to the great benefit of students of linguistics and music, he organized a special division of phonetic records. Further proof that the historian of Christian dogma had reached the full stature of the best professional librarians was hardly needed.

#### A SCHOLAR LOOKS AT CIRCULATION PROBLEMS

Harnack the scholar taught Harnack the librarian *im Nebenamt* some valuable lessons. He looked at the growing problems of circulation from his manifold experience as a library reader and tried to find a solution. Repeatedly he stated his conviction that libraries were neither museums nor cabinets of curiosities; that their function was not so much to conserve books as to put them to use; and that the best adornment of a library was a book grown worn in service. Appreciative of the value of statistics, he made a very careful investigation of the Prussian state and university libraries to discover the weaknesses in the circulation process. The fact that more than 5 per cent of the call slips in his own library were returned with the remark "We have not the book," worried him extremely. He visualized the number of postponed, interrupted, or even ruined scholarly projects which lay behind that figure. It is largely for this reason that he strongly encouraged the work of the *Auskunfts-bureau der deutschen Bibliotheken* which Althoff had founded in 1905. Richard Fick observed that "it was Harnack's spirit that prevailed in that organization," and the *Auskunfts-bureau* helped thousands of scholars to find books which otherwise they would never have been able to consult. The extension of the *Preussischer Leihverkehr* (Prussian inter-



library loan system) was a step in the same direction. Among the other statistics that disturbed the Director-General was the fact that about one-sixth of all books called for in the Royal Library were "out." He appreciated the unpleasantness of such a situation for many readers, but the alternative of making the Royal Library a reference library was even less attractive. He looked forward to the time when Berlin would have one large reference library and one circulating library, but until that distant day arrived he did not favor a complete change in his own institution. His argument was from the reader's point of view. A scholar using a reference library had to rely on excerpts in the composition of his work, whereas a circulating library enabled him to use the books up to the moment of finishing his manuscript. Accordingly Harnack concluded: "When the German scholar is praised for his particular diligence, it seems to me not unlikely that the possibility of taking library books home and studying them, by lamplight has a large share in it." His experience as a scholar also taught him the need for good and up-to-date catalogs. Though not interested in the technical details of cataloging, he did his utmost to improve the catalogs of the Royal Library (particularly by creating new facilities in the rapidly expanding periodical department) and helped to accelerate the preparation of the *Gesamtkatalog*, an enterprise of the *Grossbetrieb der Wissenschaft* which he served as herald.

As we have already observed, he had taken over his duties as director-general with the intention of proving himself an organizer in the realm of scholarship. His merits in the administrative field are very great indeed. While a member of the *Kuratorium* of the Royal Library—years before he was made head of the institution—he had noticed a certain lack of cooperation between the leading research libraries of the country. Before he accepted Althoff's call in 1905 he therefore requested a reorganization of the *Kuratorium* into a scholarly council and an extension of his own authority "in the interest of a greater centralization of the Prussian scholarly libraries." His requests were granted. The first *Beirat* appointed in 1907 consisted of professors as well as of librarians, and the position of the chair-

man, the director-general of the Royal Library, was made very strong. In fact he became more and more the official mediator between the government and all Prussian scholarly libraries—a situation which was certainly not to the latter's disadvantage. We only regret that the project of creating such a *Beirat* for the whole of Germany was not carried out in 1918 when the time was ripe for surmounting the jealousies of the states. But for Prussia, at least, there was now one man who was able to plan the great outlines of library work, to assign to each university library certain functions within the whole system, and to insure that each received a fair appropriation for its particular tasks. It was not, of course, to be expected that all the suggestions of the *Beirat* should meet with the approval of the readers, and there are naturally occasional instances—such as the introduction of library fees in 1910—of measures which were much resented and whose wisdom may still be open to question. There is one more innovation of Harnack's which deserves to be noticed. He established a library career for women without university training and increased the number of employees in the *Mittlerer Dienst* (a class of subprofessional assistants). Wilmanns had believed that even accessioning should be handled only by particularly trustworthy and academically educated librarians, but Harnack's object was to free the professional librarians as far as possible from purely routine duties. At the same time no one was more eager than he to interest the subprofessional assistants in the larger aspects of their work, and he personally conducted a course in the principles of scholarship in the hope of widening their appreciation. He even found the way to the hearts of the workingmen who moved the immense book collection from the old library building into the new edifice.

#### IN THE NEW LIBRARY BUILDING

It may be said that the new building of the Royal Library is a memorial not so much to Harnack as to his monarch, William II. The Emperor was less interested in building a library than in erecting a pompous monument to himself. Every person who has spent some time in that palace knows its short-

comings only too well. Particularly disappointing is the main reading-room which Harnack once likened to a cathedral; but it was neither Harnack's nor Schwenke's fault that the building is unsatisfactory from so many points of view. The responsibility for the whole plan rests with the court architect, von Ihne, who had the full support of the Emperor. We now know positively that Harnack and Schwenke came into office after Ihne's plans had been accepted, and that any hope of obtaining a substantial revision had to be abandoned. The most they could do was to prevent numerous errors in detail which Ihne was on the point of committing.

The day when the new building was solemnly inaugurated was certainly the most glorious event in Harnack's career as a librarian. On that day, March 22, 1914, he was raised to the rank of nobility, a high honor indeed in those days, though scarcely too high for one whose outstanding position in the academic life of Germany needed no public confirmation. He was also the central figure in the whole ceremony of inauguration—the last representative festivity of the Hohenzollern Empire. About noon, all the ministers, diplomats, generals, famous professors, industrialists, and other "grandees" were assembled in the great reading-room, when William II made his entrance. The Emperor opened with a speech in praise of the architectural glories of the new building and of the cultural attainments of his own family. He was followed by somewhat conventional addresses from the Prussian Minister of Education and a secretary of the Academy of Sciences. The last speech was reserved for Harnack. He was the only one to rise to the opportunity, and his oration ranks with the finest literary contributions to librarianship. His subject was the history of the Royal Library since the seventeenth century, but as presented by Harnack it was a history with wide perspectives and wise reflections on library work in general. It was in the course of this speech that he suggested the words *Veni creator spiritus!* as the inscription for the new building—words which he subsequently adopted for his own coat of arms after the authorities had not seen fit to authorize them for the library. He also delivered an impressive

warning against overrating the importance of the modern printed book. He did not believe that the printed word had now the significance which belonged to it two generations ago and accordingly observed that it seemed to him neither necessary nor desirable to have a complete collection of the national book production. His concluding words were: "We do not inaugurate here immense catacombs where books are to be buried, but a real treasury, a working place, a temple of the Muses and a citadel of Truth."

The World War soon brought new responsibilities to the Royal Library and its Director-General. Many members of the staff went to the trenches. Harnack kept in touch with these while doing his best to sustain the spirit of those who remained in Berlin. "He shared with them victory and defeat, joy and sorrow, hope and the pain of waiting," wrote his colleague, Emil Jacobs. At such a time some of the most important undertakings of the library were naturally interrupted, but at least one great enterprise was started. A war collection was organized after the model of the collection for the War of 1870, though on a much larger scale. In the face of considerable difficulties, the Royal Library succeeded in acquiring thousands of significant pamphlets, posters, caricatures, maps, songs, and tens of thousands of photographs. The war literature of the Allies was included so far as it was available, and similar attempts were made to preserve the publications dealing with the Socialist Revolution of 1918, but the material finally assembled in the latter category is not very comprehensive. In the worst days of the street fighting of November, 1918, Harnack gave eloquent proof of both his personal intrepidity and his solicitude for the library. While the revolutionary soldiers were firing systematically at the building, the Director-General forced his way through the barricaded streets at great danger to himself and escorted the leaders of the attacking troops around the library to convince them that no counter-revolutionaries were concealed within. He then went to the left-wing socialist, Adolf Hoffmann, at that time Prussian minister of education, and obtained his special protection for the library.

This was the only political trouble which Harnack experienced during his administration, for his personality commanded the same respect among the leaders of the Weimar Republic as it had possessed under the empire. But his last years in office were filled with disturbances of another kind. The inflation brought all cultural institutions of the country to the brink of ruin. The Prussian State Library (as the Royal Library was now called) suffered particularly, for it bought far more foreign books and subscribed to far more foreign periodicals than any other library in Germany. The problem was how to finance the upkeep of this policy, for the various increases in the library budget were not enough even to meet the rapidly rising prices of German books. Harnack realized immediately what was at stake for both the German academic world in general and his own institution in particular. As he had created the Kaiser Wilhelm Gesellschaft ten years ago so he was again instrumental in promoting another successful scholarly enterprise. Together with Friedrich Schmidt-Ott and Fritz Haber he established the *Notgemeinschaft der deutschen Wissenschaft* which did so much in the following decade to repair the immense damage inflicted upon the great libraries of Germany by war and inflation.

The rigid regulations of the Age-Limit Law forced Harnack to retire in 1921, when the State Library was in the midst of all these financial difficulties and when the advice and prestige of its director-general were needed more than ever before. And Schwenke left with him for the same reason. How much wiser is a more flexible system—such as that of the Library of Congress—in which the indispensable services of exceptional personalities are not frustrated by formal limitations. Harnack himself dealt with this problem in a letter written five years later to the present writer who was then trying to expose the harm which a bureaucratic application of the age limit was causing to German academic institutions:

The question of the age limit cannot be solved in general without damage or hardship. If a general solution seems to be necessary, the age of seventy years would be the best solution. I cannot survey the many complexities of

this question. But from my limited point of view I am inclined to believe that the age limit could be waived in the case of the Universities, although the lack of it might have its disadvantages.

#### HARNACK'S PHILOSOPHY OF LIBRARIANSHIP

If Adolf von Harnack had not been genuinely interested in library work, he certainly would have ceased to contribute to library publications after his retirement; but it so happens that some of his best papers on librarianship were written in the last period of his life. His experiences in the State Library furnished the material for a number of final conclusions whose spirit reflected as much of the wisdom and detachment of the scholar as of the technical understanding of the professional librarian.

He discussed repeatedly the problem of whether or not library science is a science at all. He did not believe that it ought to be represented at the universities if it meant nothing more than library technique. But he would have liked to see a professor devoting all his time to the "national economy of culture," i.e., the standards and statistics of book production, the relation between scholarship and publishing houses, the problems of the public libraries, the development of adult education, etc. In a long and pungent essay which contains the kernel of his philosophy of librarianship, he objects to the exaggerated ideas about his profession which were held by the Austrian librarian, Eichler. Library science, Harnack felt, was not a superscience. It was chiefly concerned with the book as a literary document, with its production and conservation, with its bibliographic and bibliophilic aspects, and, of course, with its preparation for use. Harnack expected the librarian to have two qualifications. He should possess that rich encyclopedic knowledge which is indispensable to intelligent service: "Here he has no rival, and from this knowledge springs the aid which he is rendering to scholarship or (to put it more modestly) to the scholars and the interested public." In addition, he should have sufficiently mastered one scholarly subject to be able to pass judgment on the value of the authorities in that field. We know from Harnack's son how deeply his father was con-

vinced that nothing was more important than the scholarly aspect of the library profession—that if the intimate contact with scholarship were lost, librarianship would be in danger of desolation even though the service as such might be running smoothly. Whenever a librarian is a scholar in his own right he will probably possess a keen and just faculty in his administrative work and try to create a suitable atmosphere in which others may do their research. Harnack is firmly opposed to Eichler's idea of a particular library policy. The librarian should not press the stamp of his own opinions on his library; he should let the sun rise on the evil and the good, give as much space as possible to the works of genius and of great talent, and think continually of the needs of future generations. The spirit of universal enlightenment, as Leibnitz, Newton, and Voltaire understood it, should preside over the library; a truly open-minded eclecticism should predominate in the book selection; and no librarian ought ever to forget that his building must be an asylum of peace. The right library policy, says Harnack, is always the same, whether the library is in Upsala, Berlin, or Rome, and the liberal influences of the scholarly library will shape the spirit of its readers for the general good. "The great national and university libraries are the common property of mankind. The more they are treasured and used as such, the more they will contribute toward a reunion of the divided civilized world. . . . Bibliotheca docet!"

It is open to dispute whether Adolf Harnack's conception of the library profession and its mission complies perfectly with the needs of our generation. He perhaps stressed the scholarly aspect more than some of us might think advisable. But even those who believe that the time of the scholar-librarian has passed completely will have to concede that Harnack the scholar rendered invaluable services to the cause of librarianship. Let us hear two leading German experts as witnesses. Emil Jacobs (himself a director of the Prussian State Library) wrote after his great master's death that only Harnack could have had such success, that only Harnack's intellect and personality could have gathered such a harvest, and that none but Harnack



could have dedicated such years of splendid service to the State Library. Only recently we have had the second testimony from the somewhat critical Georg Leyh, director of the Tübingen University Library: "It is a historic fact that Harnack brought about a brilliant rise of the Prussian State Library." But the man to whose memory these pages are devoted as a small tribute of life-long admiration found himself the finest expression for his relationship to library work. Some time after his retirement he said to his successor as director-general: "Wenn ich von der Staatsbibliothek höre, ist es mir, als höre ich von der Heimat."

#### A NOTE ON THE LITERATURE

The recent literature on Harnack's life and work in the English language is almost negligible. The only satisfactory essay was published by George W. Richards in the *Journal of religion*, XI (1931), 333-45; it deals with the place of Adolf von Harnack among church historians. An earlier article on "Harnack and liberal Protestantism" by Dean W. R. Inge in the *Hibbert journal*, XXVI (1928), 633-46, is less significant than one would expect from the famous author. There exists nothing worth mentioning on Harnack's achievements in the Prussian State Library except for a few passages in Arundell Esdaile's book on *The national libraries of the world* (London: Grafton, 1934).

On the other hand, the literature on our subject in German is so comprehensive that we must confine ourselves to giving a selected list of the truly important books and essays. For scholars as librarians before Harnack's age, we refer to the *Lexikon des gesamten Buchwesens* and the *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*; also to the essay on "Die Brüder Grimm als Bibliothekare" by Ludwig Zöpf in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XLV (1928), 123-37; to Bernhard Lepsius' charming book, *Das Haus Lepsius* (Berlin: Klinkhardt & Biermann, 1933), pp. 349 ff.; and to Theodor Mommsen's *Reden und Aufsätze* (Berlin: Weidmann, 1905), pp. 215-27. Harnack himself found the ideal biographer in the person of his daughter, Agnes von Zahn-Harnack. Her book, *Adolf von Harnack* (2d ed.; Berlin-Tempelhof:

Hans Bott, 1937), gives a fascinating picture of her father's life; his library career is adequately, though not exhaustively, treated. The reviews of this book, written by Heinrich Hoffmann for *Historische Zeitschrift*, CLV (1936-37), 144-51; Adolf Keller for the *Review of religion*, I (1936-37), 182-86; Georg Leyh for *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, LIV (1937), 63-65; and W. J. Sparrow Simpson for the *Hibbert journal*, XXXVI (1938), 395-402, are particularly valuable. Emil Jacobs in his spirited essay on Harnack in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XLVII (1930), 365-76, and Axel von Harnack ("Die Bibliothek Adolf v. Harnacks") in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XLIX (1932), 341-50, deal more thoroughly with Harnack the librarian; their articles are probably the best of all.

A detailed description of Harnack's work in the Prussian State Library is given in the volume *Fünfzehn Jahre königliche und Staatsbibliothek*, which the scholarly members of the staff presented to the Director-General on the day of his retirement. The annual reports of the Prussian State Library are also good sources of information. The biography of Friedrich Althoff by Arnold Sachse (Berlin: Mittler, 1928) makes clearer the background of Harnack's activities. Last but not least, four essays written by his successors in the State Library are to be mentioned. Fritz Milkau is the author of the brilliant chapter on libraries in the work *Aus fünfzig Jahren deutscher Wissenschaft*, edited by Gustav Abb (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1930) and of the obituary for Wilhelm Erman in the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, L (1933), 27-43. Hugo A. Krüss published a little study on "25 Jahre preussischer Beirat für Bibliotheksangelegenheiten" in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, L (1933), 18-21, and contributed the chapter "Zur Geschichte der Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin in den letzten dreissig Jahren" to *Essays offered to Herbert Putnam by his colleagues and friends* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1929), pp. 263-74.

There exists a complete bibliography of Harnack's own writings by Friedrich Smend; it contains more than 1,600 titles! Harnack's important articles on library problems are to be found in the following volumes of his collected essays: *Aus*

*Wissenschaft und Leben; Aus der Friedens und Kriegsarbeit; Erforschtes und Erlebtes, and Aus der Werkstatt des Vollendeten.* His critical examination of Eichler's study *Bibliothekswissenschaft als Wertwissenschaft* is published in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XL (1923), 529-37.

The author's own recollections of a course in church history, which he took with Harnack at Berlin University, helped him toward a better understanding of Harnack's personality in general. Concerning Harnack's relations with American libraries, this writer is deeply obliged to Professor William Adams Brown of Union Theological Seminary, to Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, and to the following present or former members of the staff of the Library of Congress: Mr. Martin Roberts, chief assistant librarian, Mr. Charles Martel, and Dr. J. C. M. Hanson.

## THE PHILOSOPHY OF CLASSIFICATION AND OF CLASSIFYING<sup>1</sup>

HARRIET D. MACPHERSON

IN AN earlier paper the writer attempted to assemble some remarks which might serve as an introductory study to the philosophy of cataloging.<sup>2</sup> This second article, which is devoted to the philosophy of classification and of classifying, is likewise of a general nature. Many of the points raised could be handled at length as individual topics. Also, it is likely that some of the statements may be questioned; in fact, it is hoped that they will be, for that is the only way in which progressive thinking and writing along these lines will be made public to classifiers at large.

In spite of the present current belief that the tasks of classifying and of assigning subject headings to books in libraries require one and the same mental process, it can hardly be assumed that classification and subject-heading work, or classification and cataloging, are one and the same thing. Nor can it be assumed that these two branches of library work must necessarily have the same philosophy. It is true that classification is usually handled by the catalog department, and in many cases by the same set of people who are responsible for the maintenance of the catalog, but it seems that the underlying principles of classification are broader than those of cataloging, and that any approach to the philosophy of classification is a much more difficult undertaking.

In the first place, classification, whether viewed from the shelf list or from the backs of books as they are located on the shelves, presents a different arrangement for books than that

<sup>1</sup> An address given before the Maryland, Virginia, and District of Columbia Regional Group of Catalogers, at Baltimore, Maryland, November 5, 1938.

<sup>2</sup> "Some thoughts on the philosophy of cataloging," *Library quarterly*, IX (1939), 63-71.

which is found in the dictionary catalog, and it is the dictionary form of catalog which has become most acceptable and most widely used in American libraries. It is admitted that the classified catalog, arranged according to the classification system of a library, does bear a close relationship to the books on the shelves. Yet for better or for worse, the classified catalog is no longer popular in America except in some specialized libraries, or in a few institutions where such a record is maintained in addition to the more common dictionary file. In fact, it is quite possible in a closed-shelf library to consider the catalog and its maintenance as something quite apart from the classification of books in that institution. In the open-shelf library, on the other hand, the catalog, through its subject headings, must serve as a supplementary source of information to readers who wish to collect more material in any particular field than is represented by whole volumes devoted to specific subjects. As yet one cannot escape the fact that while a book may be mentioned under several subjects in the catalog, it can stand in only one place on the shelves—that place which the classifier has selected as the most logical and useful part of the classification scheme for proper relationship to other books in the library.<sup>3</sup>

Another reason for the difference between the classification and the cataloging of books in libraries concerns the systematization of the two processes. With the wide use of the Library of Congress card, the cataloging of ordinary books has become more or less standardized. The 1908 edition of the *A.L.A. catalog rules*, through its presentation of fundamental rules and accompanying examples, attempted to pave the way for the uniform handling of books of all sorts; the revised code, now nearing completion, is combining the wisdom of the old rules and knowledge gleaned from usage instituted by the Library of Congress card. It is true that the small library, the school library, some special libraries, and the juvenile departments of public libraries often employ simplified methods of cataloging;

<sup>3</sup> W. H. Phillips, *A primer of book classification* (London: Association of Assistant Librarians, 1938), pp. 145-46.

yet more and more the catalogs in even these institutions are being built up with Library of Congress cards. All the information supplied on these printed cards may not be necessary for such catalogs; yet so much time and money can be saved by their use that simplified cataloging may soon be a thing of the past for most libraries in the United States. Even the cataloging of incunabula is becoming standardized, and serials, documents, and manuscripts have received considerable attention of late, not only in general sets of rules, but also through the publication of separate pamphlets or books that deal with their special problems. The entire field of rare-book cataloging appears to be the only section left untouched by standardization, and it is doubtful whether there can ever be entire standardization here because so many of the books require individual treatment.

The systematization of classification cannot be said to have kept pace with the systematization of cataloging. A hasty survey of the problem would lead one to suppose that classification had been more or less standardized. The Dewey Decimal Classification is in use in the majority of small and medium-sized libraries in this country and in some large libraries; the Library of Congress Classification is used by large libraries; some few institutions are using the Brussels system; while a number of older libraries are still classified according to the Cutter Expansive Classification. All these systems have been well tested from a practical standpoint and have, with certain limitations, proved satisfactory for the ordinary library. In addition, there are various aids to classifiers in applying at least two of these systems. The Library of Congress card has been supplying the Library of Congress Classification numbers for the benefit of other libraries for over thirty years; for more than eight years the Dewey Decimal Classification numbers as well have been added to these cards. Also, Dewey Decimal numbers are furnished in various printed aids, such as the *A.L.A. catalog* and the *A.L.A. booklist*. Yet there is no standard system of classification that will meet the needs of all sorts of institutions, and it is doubtful whether such a system will ever be discovered.

Many large libraries are still using independent classification

schemes that have proved fairly successful. The cost of changing to the Library of Congress Classification has seemed to these institutions prohibitive and even of doubtful value, and so the old systems are retained. This last statement is particularly true of libraries where readers have no access, or only partial access, to the shelves.

Classifiers in special libraries and in the departmental and special collections in various types of large institutions have examined the better known systems of classification and have found them wanting for particular needs. Sometimes the fault has been with the notation; again, the system is lacking in fulness or in logical development. Therefore, we are constantly becoming aware of new special schemes of classification which are springing up in various parts of the country. Some of the better organized of these independent systems are adopted by other special libraries with similar collections, but many such systems remain unused save by the institutions in which they have originated.

These remarks have been confined to libraries within the United States. Abroad the condition is even more complicated, and it need hardly be investigated here because there are relatively few large libraries abroad with open access to the shelves and because so many countries still make such wide use of the classified catalog. It might be mentioned, however, that the recent appearance of the revised edition of the Brown Subject Classification may cause many libraries in Great Britain to turn from the Dewey Decimal Classification to the Brown system.<sup>4</sup> Less than a year ago the writer had occasion to visit two fair-sized public libraries in England that were classified according to the Brown scheme. Each provided open access to the shelves and a good dictionary catalog. Talks with the librarians revealed that the readers as well as the staffs seemed satisfied with the Brown system.

Therefore, it would seem that no existing classification meets

<sup>4</sup> The widespread use of the Dewey Decimal system in Great Britain was shown through a recent article by J. L. Thornton, entitled "Classification in Great Britain: a brief survey," *Library world*, XL (1938), 155-57.



the needs of all types of libraries; that, while aids to classifiers for at least two schemes are known and used, it is doubtful whether the Library of Congress card or any other printed help will bring the standardization of classification to the same point which that of cataloging has reached.

The foregoing remarks are by way of introduction to prove that the problems of cataloging and classification are different. And since they are different it is possible that the underlying philosophies of these two processes may not be identical. For instance, can the philosophy of classification be said to fit in, as well as cataloging fits in, with the main type of philosophy to which librarianship as a whole is said to belong? From the remarks of two authoritative writers, Louis R. Wilson<sup>5</sup> and J. Periam Danton,<sup>6</sup> we judge that the philosophy of librarianship is a sociological philosophy which involves education in the larger sense of this word. On the whole, the general principles underlying cataloging and the personal philosophy of the cataloger can be said to meet these standards. Catalogers are aiming and should aim to produce catalogs that are changing and developing as libraries should change and develop "to meet the educational needs of groups as well as of individuals and to serve society in a fundamentally educational way."<sup>7</sup> In many libraries the catalogs are still far from meeting these needs in an ideal fashion, but in large numbers of institutions improvements are being started and there is a constant alertness to the necessity for making the material in books more easily available for readers. Has this same philosophy been adopted for classification, and if not, can it be adopted in the future?

An analysis of the fundamentals of classification as it is practiced in our modern American libraries reveals the fact that classification is a more complex thing than cataloging. It may be said to have its roots in history and tradition and its systematic orders in the intellect; its practical application lies,

<sup>5</sup> "The next fifty years," *Library journal*, LXI (1936), 256.

<sup>6</sup> "Plea for a philosophy of librarianship," *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 528.

<sup>7</sup> Wilson, *loc. cit.*

presumably, in the nature of the collection in a particular library. Both the theoretical and the practical sides of cataloging are more tangible. In cataloging there is less respect for the historical angle of the subject and more concern for basic rules and the application of those rules in the handling of the individual book.

Every textbook on classification and almost every printed general scheme for the subject classification of books starts with a definition of classification—not the classification of books, but the classification of human knowledge. From there these works progress to the subject classification of books and then to the classification of books in libraries. Aside from a few individual subject schemes which have been promulgated to suit the needs of special collections, any general scheme of classification for libraries is therefore bound by the conception of human knowledge in general and by the printed material in books published throughout the universe.<sup>8</sup> Every library must fit its own needs and its own collection to the concept of human knowledge as it has been worked out by the compiler of the classification system that has been adopted.

This seems to be inevitable. Branches of knowledge exist, books are written on every subject under the sun, and most libraries find it convenient to classify their collections according to the standard system of classification which most nearly fits their needs. It takes time, money, and intellect to work out a new scheme in any library, and there is always the likelihood that an individual system may not provide for the future logical subdivisions of branches of human knowledge as successfully as a scheme that has been worked out by a compiler who bears in mind the scope of the knowledge of the universe. The classification system of the Library of Congress is an exception to the foregoing statement. It was conceived originally to meet the needs of one large library.<sup>9</sup> It is, moreover, mainly the work of

<sup>8</sup> Cf. J. F. M. Albert, *Recherches sur les principes fondamentaux de la classification bibliographique* (Paris: Chez l'auteur, 1847), pp. 33-35.

<sup>9</sup> Charles Martel, "Library of Congress Classification," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, V (1911), 230.

one person—Charles Martel.<sup>10</sup> Yet perhaps the success of this scheme lies to some extent in the fact that useful points were borrowed from Cutter and from Dewey. Also, in the development of the Library of Congress scheme, the different divisions of human knowledge, not only as represented through the book collection already in the Library of Congress but as these divisions might be represented by many new publications in the future, were always kept well in mind.<sup>11</sup> The fact that certain fields were worked out with the co-operation of subject specialists only adds to the authoritativeness of this scheme and puts it in a place by itself among the classifications which have originated in individual libraries.

Unfortunately for the classifier, horizons of knowledge widen and new discoveries change the relationships of subjects and their subdivisions. In turn, there are corresponding changes in the subject matter of books. Also, while many of the same titles are found on the shelves of different libraries, no two library collections will remain identical for any length of time. Makers of classification systems have realized these difficulties and have tried to evolve schemes that are elastic, detailed, and logical in their progression of subjects. But no detailed scheme can entirely provide for the future; a classification system that seems ideal today will have to be changed in some respect on the morrow. And always there is the individual collection of books in the individual library that must be made available for readers. Thus there are four points to consider in regard to the classification of books in our libraries. These are, in order: (1) the divisions of human knowledge; (2) the divisions of human knowledge dealt with in books; (3) classification schemes for books in libraries; and (4) individual collections of books in libraries. Likewise, there might be said to be four philosophies: (1) the philosophy covering the different divisions of human knowledge—the philosophy of the universe; (2) the philosophies of the divisions of knowledge as portrayed in printed books;

<sup>10</sup> J. C. M. Hanson, "Library of Congress Classification for college libraries," *Library journal*, XLVI (1921), 152.

<sup>11</sup> Martel, *op. cit.*, p. 231.

(3) the philosophy of the compilers of classification schemes; and (4) the philosophy of classifiers who try to fit particular collections of books into existing classification schemes with the hope that readers will be satisfied with the resulting arrangement of the books on the shelves.

Of course, there are minor steps that involve other philosophies along the way. For instance, there is the philosophy of how to classify books according to any system of classification. This is portrayed in part through textbooks on classification and particularly through that indispensable tool for the beginner, William Stetson Merrill's *Code for classifiers*.<sup>12</sup> There are, likewise, works that attempt to analyze the philosophy of certain subject fields. Perhaps the most stimulating and also the most tantalizing type of book is, however, that in which the author attempts to philosophize on the philosophy of classification and to fit the various theories in with the philosophy of the best methods through which to obtain adequate service for readers in libraries. Many writers have tried to line up the difficulties involved in all these interrelationships. To mention a few: Bliss, Brown, Kelley, Phillips, Richardson, and Sayers have each presented the problem in a different way. One of the latest studies in this field, and one which deserves particular mention because it attempts a practical solution by employing scientific methods for the investigation of the problem, is *The classification of books*, by Grace Osgood Kelley.<sup>13</sup> She challenges modern methods of classifying books in libraries, the practicability of the most-used classification schemes, the tendency to classify too closely, and the idea that the reader can get most of the material on a given subject by going to the shelves. She thinks that librarians are not sufficiently aware of the fact that any scheme that has been used to classify books must be supplemented by careful subject-heading work in the card catalog in order to bring out the different parts of books, and that the catalog, in turn, must be supplemented by "the body of general

<sup>12</sup> Chicago: American Library Association, 1928.

<sup>13</sup> New York: H. W. Wilson, 1937.

and special indexes and bibliographies which must be utilized in each field."<sup>14</sup>

Are classifiers, therefore, fitting the philosophy of classification into the general scheme of the sociological philosophy of librarianship? What can an individual classifier in a library do about the situation? The books are there to be classified; the classification scheme in use must continue to be employed, at least in most instances; no great change or widespread experimentation may seem possible in many libraries; the institution of a classified catalog, to serve along with the dictionary catalog, will prove costly and perhaps impractical because of already crowded conditions in the buildings; detailed numbers for the majority of books are so very conveniently found on incoming Library of Congress cards. Any classifier may well pause and reflect over these points. He may be a conservative person who is appalled by a book such as Miss Kelley's. He may recognize the four different philosophies which exist in regard to classification but be unable to see either the necessity for their reconciliation or the means to reconcile them. He may be a conscientious, broad-minded person with an ability to think for himself; most classifiers are of that type. What can he do?

In the first place, heads of libraries should be confronted with proof of the impractical side of a too detailed classification for most subject fields. It is costly; it is often unnecessary; to continue with it always makes the task of changing more formidable. In the second place, classifiers should be warned not to take over bodily for their own libraries the detailed Library of Congress and Dewey Decimal numbers appearing on Library of Congress cards. Those numbers are usually worked out to the fullest extent and should be analyzed carefully before adoption. Next, the classifier and the librarian should confer about the possibility of trying some experimentation with regard to more efficient classification service. Book shelves can have better signs and directions about the classification system in use and about the need for supplementing material found on the shelves with the subject catalog and with special indexes and bibliog-

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 128.

raphies. Libraries are surprisingly negligent about posting signs of this sort; that they really help the thoughtful reader can be attested to by the writer, who, within the past year, was a casual reader in a public library where the details of the classification system would have been practically unknown to her had it not been for the numerous signs. Also, there is the possibility of assigning trained classifiers to duty in the stacks in order to help readers. This means might be tried out at first in one particular section of a large library; later, if the idea proved of value, classifiers could be assigned to cover all important sections of the stacks. In many institutions trained librarians are stationed to help readers interpret the catalog. Why not classifiers to help readers understand the arrangement of books on the shelves and to give suggestions as to other places in the library where material on a certain subject may be available?

There are other possible methods of procedure that might help to reconcile the four different philosophies of classification. This is not a call for the formulation of new classification systems that might prove more practical, more scientific, and more modern. The trouble is that in the past almost every compiler of a scheme believed that he had developed the one system that would be the panacea for all future classification ills.<sup>15</sup> Any general system, even if it were founded on the extent of the human knowledge of the universe and provided for books that have been written within the different divisions of that knowledge, would require adaptations before it could meet the needs of individual libraries. Back of practical classification stand the different philosophies, and for the present it seems that the classifier will have to work hard to so organize the book collection that the ideals of the sociological philosophy of librarianship may be approached.

In a short time, however, some of the problems of the four philosophies may be solved for the majority of libraries in a unique and practical fashion. Microfilm and the possibilities for the development of its use may soon have a profound effect

<sup>15</sup> Cf. J. D. Brown, *Subject classification* (2d ed. rev.; London: Grafton, 1914), pp. 7-8.

on classification—even a more immediate effect than on cataloging. There may be fewer books on library shelves since most reading material may be available through films. At present, films are confined to use in libraries, but the time may come when readers will find it possible to borrow them for home use. New classifications of an entirely different sort may have to be developed for film literature. It is by no means certain, for instance, that classification by subject will prove the most useful method of arrangement for this sort of material. In some libraries it has already been demonstrated that, since it is not possible for readers to consult the films themselves as they stand on the shelves, close classification is unnecessary.<sup>16</sup> Another drastic change may come through the opportunity, by means of microphotography, to multiply large numbers of copies of the subject matter of popular books. The result may be a chance to classify different copies of this material so that they will stand in several different places on the shelves. In that case, classifiers would no longer be able to say—as they do of books at the present time—that, while a work may be represented by several separate subject headings in a catalog, the volume itself can be put in only one place on the shelves. It is rather early to prophesy, but if microphotography revolutionizes our libraries and our service to readers it may very likely revolutionize our classification systems and our whole philosophy of classifying.

<sup>16</sup> W. E. Wright, "The cataloging of microfilm," *Library journal*, LXIII (1938), 531.



## THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

FELIX EDWARD HIRSCH, librarian of Bard College, Columbia University, was born in Berlin, Germany, February 7, 1902. He attended the Bismarck-Gymnasium in Berlin-Wilmersdorf, then studied history and economics at the universities of Berlin and Heidelberg, taking his Ph.D. degree at Heidelberg in 1923. His thesis dealt with the German labor legislation movement and its relation to Bismarck's dismissal. From 1924 to the beginning of 1934 he was the political editor of several large liberal newspapers, the last of which was the *Berliner Tageblatt*. He also contributed many articles on historical subjects to the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, *Die Hilfe*, *Deutsche Zukunft*, and other German periodicals. He came to the United States in 1935, studied at the Columbia University School of Library Service, and in 1936 was appointed to his present position. In addition, he has been teaching in the history and German departments and is now an associate and fellow in German at Bard College. He has published articles on historical and bibliographical topics in *Books abroad*, *The living age*, *School and society*, and the *Wilson bulletin*.

HARRIET D. MACPHERSON: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 362, and IX (1939), 88.

LOWELL MARTIN: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, VII (1937), 578. Mr. Martin was assistant librarian at the Wright Junior College in Chicago during 1937-38. At present he is a student in the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago.

FREMONT RIDER: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, VI (1936), 419, and VIII (1938), 415.

THORVALD SOLBERG: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 364.

## THE COVER DESIGN

REPRODUCED on the cover of this issue of the *Library quarterly* is the printer's mark of Thomas Berthelet. After serving as an assistant and probably as an apprentice of Richard Pynson, the royal printer, Berthelet went into business for himself in Fleet Street near the conduit at the sign of Lucrece. His

first book was dated 1528. On February 15, 1530, immediately after the death of Pynson, Henry VIII appointed him to the position of king's printer. Nor did Henry's patronage stop there, for he made Berthelet his personal bookseller and bookbinder as well.

With the death of Henry, however, Berthelet lost the privileges which he had enjoyed, for King Edward VI appointed Richard Grafton printer to the king in 1547. Though Berthelet remained in nominal control of his press until his death on September 26, 1555, he probably handed over the active management of it in the summer of 1548 to his nephew and successor, Thomas Powell.

As a bookbinder, Berthelet far excelled his English contemporaries. He was strongly influenced by the work of the great Venetian firms and it is believed that he brought Italian binders to London to work for him and to teach his own men the art of bookbinding.

He printed at least four hundred and thirteen editions and his output was varied, in spite of the fact that during the seventeen years which he served as king's printer he issued a large amount of official publications in defense of King Henry's policies, such as Bishop Gardiner's *De vera obedientia*. Medicine was well represented by such old works as the *Regimen sanitatis salernitanum*, by accounts of new cures—such as Hutten's *Of the wood called guaiacum*—and by such popular treatises as Sir Thomas Elyot's *The castel of helth*. Practical manuals like Fitzherbert's *The boke of husbandry* and *Surveyinge*; sermons and exhortations to godliness by politically sound preachers; works of Catholic humanists (such as Erasmus and Guevara) and of moderate foreign Protestants (such as Vives); the productions of the classical authors, of the early English poets (such as Gower), and of contemporary literary men (such as Heywood) were also represented in his output. Most notable among his publications were the writings of Sir Thomas Elyot—all of whose works he issued.

Berthelet's mark, a representation of the death of Lucrece, was taken from his house sign—a popular emblem in sixteenth-century England.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

## REVIEW ARTICLE

### INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES

The appearance of a comprehensive union list of international congresses<sup>1</sup> will focus attention upon a type of publication now becoming increasingly important and increasingly numerous. This list will be both an aid and an incentive to libraries to survey their holdings and to build up their collections of these elusive publications.

The publications of international congresses have individual peculiarities which place them somewhat outside any of the well-defined forms of literature to be found in libraries. Although they are frequently published at more or less regular intervals they can hardly be classed as serials. They might be grouped as continuations, but in library procedure they cannot be dealt with as such, for the proceedings of successive congresses may vary in such details as the language or languages in which they are issued, their general format, title, place, and publisher. Because of such irregularities it is difficult for an order department to place continuation orders.

Note, for example, the publishing variations in the last five congresses of the International Congress of the History of Medicine:

- 6, Leyden, 1927 [Report] Antwerp, de Vlijt [1927?]
- 7, Oslo, 1928 *Compte rendu général*. In *Société française d'histoire de la médecine*. Bulletin. 1928. 22:391-412
- 8, Rome, 1930 *Atti ... Pisa, Lisci, 1931*.
- 9, Bucharest, 1932 *Comptes-rendus ... Bucharest, Furnica [1936?]*
- 10, Madrid, 1935 [Programma] ... [Madrid, Bolanos y Aguilar, 1935]

Consequently, the proceedings of each congress must ordinarily be treated as a separate entity—like a book. But unlike most books they have no rationality. They are rarely listed in the national trade bibliographies and only imperfectly in national lists of any kind. They are indeed publications without a country, shifting operations from country to country as the seat of the congress changes and, with consequent changes in manner and method of publication, successfully eluding the library which seeks continuity in its files. One might mention also that the looseness with which writers refer to the names of congresses and the titles of their publications contributes to the general confusion. These seem to translate very readily into the language of a

<sup>1</sup> Winifred Gregory (ed.), *International congresses and conferences, 1840-1937: a union list of their publications available in libraries of the United States and Canada* (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1938).

writer but often with variations which may be extremely disconcerting from a bibliographical standpoint.

Sometimes publications of congresses take on the character of public documents, since many congresses have some official recognition by governments through official representation, a subvention to defray the expenses of delegates, or provision for the publication of the proceedings. This is particularly true of many of the so-called public and semipublic congresses. Many of the private congresses, too, even though they may have no official connection with governments, often benefit from governmental aid of one sort or another, and many publish their proceedings in the form of government documents.

The diplomatic congress, which is frequently convened by rulers at the end of a war to determine peace terms and usually to rearrange the national boundaries, has a long history. The Congress of Westphalia (1648) is usually cited as the first important example of modern times. The reports of such congresses will form a part of the diplomatic archives or state papers of the countries concerned. Within the last century, however, another type of public conference has come into prominence—the conference dealing with some specific problem having international implications, i.e., public health, communications, commerce—all activities subject in some degree to international regulation. Such conferences, although they may have official status for the countries involved, are being conducted less by diplomatic representatives and more by specialists trained and experienced in the problems under discussion. All the great nations of the world today are involved in conferences of such specialists—both public and private. Typical public conferences in which this country participates regularly include the following: the International Postal Congress which met first in 1874, the International Telegraph Conference (1865+), the International Hydrographic Conference (1919+), and the conference of the Inter-parliamentary Union (1889+). In 1937 the United States participated in 74 conferences involving an attendance of at least 275 official American delegates.<sup>2</sup>

There is no well-defined line of demarcation between the public and the private congress, although the latter produces more material of specialized subject interest. These congresses are frequently initiated by some international group or association which may itself be the result of a union of several national associations of similar character. A typical case is the International Federation of Trade Unions, organized in 1901, which has sponsored the International Trade Union Congress since 1919.

Early congresses were not so definitely affiliated with an international organization as are those of today. A conference would be called as the opportunity presented itself, as at an international exposition where nationals from many countries might be expected to foregather. They were usually sponsored

<sup>2</sup> U.S. Department of State, *American delegations to international conferences, congresses and expositions and American representation on international institutions and commissions, with relevant data* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933).

by a national society in the host country. As national societies grew in strength and influence it was only logical that there should arise international societies pledged to unify and co-ordinate the activities of the various national groups—primarily by means of periodic conferences. Sometimes the international organization appeared before the congress; sometimes a congress created the organization to serve as a sort of secretariat for the congress. Now they exist side by side, the organization carrying on its international activities in the interim between congresses and frequently administering the activities of the congress itself. The International Society of Soil Science was founded in 1924 and sponsored the first International Congress of Soil Science in 1927; the International Bureau of Technical Education was established in 1897 at the fourth International Congress on Technical Education and since that time has convened the congresses. The International Psychological Congress, on the other hand, has no corresponding international organization but names an organizing committee to function for each congress.

The relationship of society to congress has resulted in two distinct kinds of publications which are likely to be confused bibliographically: (1) the serial or other publication issued by the international organization just as national societies issue some sort of official organ; and (2) the proceedings of the congress itself which may or may not be officially a publication of the organization. The International Academy of the History of Sciences (formerly the Committee) publishes a periodical called the *Archeion* which would be entered in a library catalog under its title with an added entry for the academy. A less distinctive title would be entered under the academy as author. However, the International Congress on the History of Science, sponsored by the same academy, would be entered under its own name—one congress would be distinguished from another by the addition of its numerical number, the year, and place of the meeting. This is in accordance with A.L.A. Catalog Rule 101 for international meetings.

Serial publications of international organizations—associations, societies, etc.—will be found in the *Union list of serials*, but not the publications of congresses. This lack is now supplied with the new Gregory list. The best guide to international organizations is the *Handbook of international organizations* issued by the League of Nations in a French and an English edition, now in its third revision. This gives the main facts concerning the history of about 650 organizations, including the official name of each in two or more languages, their publications, and an indication of the congresses they sponsor. Among other useful references may be cited: Lyman C. White's *The structure of private international organizations*,<sup>3</sup> and Herbert N. Shenton's *Cosmopolitan conversation*.<sup>4</sup> The latter, based on the 1929 League *Handbook*, gives informa-

<sup>3</sup> Philadelphia: George S. Ferguson, 1933.

<sup>4</sup> New York: Columbia University Press, 1933.

tion about more than 600 international organizations, including some not found in the 1929 edition of the *Handbook*.

It is undoubtedly true that the great growth of international organizations represents an increasing desire and need on the part of the people of the world in almost all lines of activity to know what their contemporaries are doing in other countries, for purposes of co-operation. It is also true that there is more opportunity for such co-operation in these days of easy and rapid intercommunication. The growth of organizations within national boundaries has been a factor in this increase, as the international organization is so frequently based on the local groups. There are also certain co-ordinating agencies such as the League of Nations, the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, the Union of International Associations, the International Council of Scientific Unions, and the International Union of Academies—all furthering the progress of international activities.

Shenton, in his thorough and illuminating study, reveals that an average of more than 200 international congresses were held every year in the period 1923-29. This average appears to be slightly less in recent years but probably has not fallen greatly—at least previous to 1938. The League of Nations *Quarterly bulletin of information on the work of international organizations* records 161 congresses for the period November, 1936—December, 1937. Undoubtedly there were others which did not appear in this record. This is an impressive increase in a century. In the first decade of international congresses, 1840-49, only 9 are recorded, or an average of about 1 a year. The period of 1880-89 had an average of 31 a year; 1890-99 had 51. The first decade of the present century showed a great growth with a total of 1,062 conferences, or more than 100 a year. For the entire period, 1840-1931, Shenton gives a total of 4,717 congresses. A conservative estimate for the later period, 1932-37, if placed at 1,000 would make a total of 5,717, which seems to be slightly under the number recorded in the Gregory list.

The most important single source of information about the early congresses is the *Annuaire de la vie internationale*, Vols. I-II (2d ser., 1908-11). This was prepared and published for the Union of International Associations in Brussels, then the recognized center for this sort of international co-operation, and was edited by Alfred H. Fried, Henri La Fontaine, and Paul Otlet. The valuable data collected by these men has been used in all important studies of the subject since that time. However, all the names of congresses were given in French with no indication of other official names. Also, the emphasis was on the history and purposes of individual congresses—not on their publications.

Some attempts have been made in recent years to list the publications of congresses. In *Serials of an international character*, prepared by the Law Li-

brary of Columbia University<sup>5</sup> there is such a list based on the holdings of a few large libraries in this country. Robert Doré<sup>6</sup> drew on this for his later list of congresses which had held at least one session in a French-speaking country. Doré gives bibliographical information regarding the proceedings only when they have been published in French.

The new Gregory list is far more comprehensive than any previous efforts. It is a most important and valuable compilation, a credit to the editor and to the committee which has sponsored it. It is a list of the publications of congresses, with an indication of library holdings in 110 libraries of the United States and Canada. Congresses which have no known publications, if they form one of a series, are listed by number, place, and date if one or more of these facts are known. Space is left for libraries to add lacking data in such cases. Isolated congresses for which no published proceedings were found in libraries are apparently not listed. At least there is no record of the first agricultural congress, Congrès International de l'Agriculture, which met from September 21-24, 1848, in Brussels, as recorded in the *Annuaire*. The data for the original list was secured from many sources, including libraries in this country and also in Europe. The editor spent several months in Europe in 1937 checking in the large libraries, notably in such international collections as the League of Nations Library in Geneva, the Library of the Peace Palace in The Hague, and the International Institute of Documentation in Brussels.

This list will be an aid to acquisition and a standardizing influence on the records of libraries. Because of the frequent variation in the names of succeeding meetings of the same congress it is natural that there should be a lack of uniformity in records. It is also probable that because of this libraries will find that they possess some titles with which they are not credited. For example, the Nancy congress (eighth, 1932) of the International Congress of Forestry Experimental Stations, so entered in the Gregory list, is cataloged by the United States Department of Agriculture Library with a printed card under "International union of forest research organizations."

Unless a library has a very thorough system of cross-references and information cards a first checking of such a list will not reveal all holdings. The new list will be a great boon to editors of union catalogs who must unify the entries from several libraries. Some libraries might enter the Cannes Medical Congress (1919) convened by the Red Cross under "Cannes"; others under its name, "Medical conference, Cannes," which is the Library of Congress entry; others under "Red Cross," or under the "League of Red Cross Societies," which convened the congress. The first World Congress of Libraries and Bibliography (1929), which met in Rome and Venice, was cataloged by at least

<sup>5</sup> "Bulletin," No. 3 (2d ser.; New York: Institute of International Education, 1921).

<sup>6</sup> *Essai d'une bibliographie des congrès internationaux* (Paris: Edouard Champion, 1923).



one American library under its official Italian name, "Congresso mondiale delle biblioteche e di bibliografia." This might be in agreement with an entry of the Vatican Library but it is not in agreement with the English form adopted by the Library of Congress.

In the Gregory list the English form of the name is always preferred when it has been used officially, but references are made from the name as it has appeared in other languages. This is in accordance with Anglo-American catalog rules and with Library of Congress practice. The result is that more of the main entries are in English than in any other language, with a very considerable proportion in French. An examination of the publications, on the other hand, would probably reveal a much higher percentage of the contents to be in French than in any other language. According to Shenton, of the 1,088 conferences held during the years 1923-29 there were 285, or more than one-fourth, using French as the sole official language. Only 68 used English as the only official language and 26 used German. English and French were used together as official languages in 141 conferences; and English, French, and German in combination were used in 248. Adding to these numbers the cases where French was used in other combinations, there was a total of 789 conferences, or 72 per cent, which had French as one official language. English is next with 555, or 51 per cent; German with 399, or 36 per cent.

With respect to main entry for these publications, one can hardly hope for international uniformity, although with French so predominantly an official language, a reference may be expected from the French name in a catalog in any language. For main entries national practices will vary. The Library of Congress enters the International Juridical Congress under its English name; the Vatican Library under "Congresso giuridico internazionale." Such variations are inevitable and must be reckoned with in union catalogs or in any bibliographical work involving foreign catalogs. It might be of interest to call attention to the excellent catalog record made for many congresses in the *Monthly list of books catalogued in the library of the League of Nations*. However, the preferred entry is almost invariably the French form of the name, i.e., Congrès international des sciences historiques, rather than International Congress of Historical Studies.

The first congress for which a publication is listed in Gregory is the Skandinaviske naturforskeres møde held in Gothenburg, Sweden, in 1839, but publishing its *Forhandlingar* in 1840. An earlier one is listed, Congrès celtique international, 1838, Abergavenny, but without any publication to its credit. The Scandinavian congress, which appears to displace the General Anti-slavery Convention (London, 1840) from its previously conceded position of priority, was definitely the forerunner of later international congresses in scientific fields. It, however, was not a sudden original development but received its inspiration from similar conferences held in Germany and included scientific men from all the German states, notably the Gesellschaft deutscher Naturforscher und Aerzte (Leipzig, 1822). The first Scandinavian congress included

ninety-three scientists and medical men from twenty-three cities of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, with one each from Kiel and Berlin. Eighteen succeeding congresses have met in various cities of the Scandinavian countries. The papers contained in their published proceedings are in the language of the respective writers, and the general titles of the proceedings vary according to the language of the host country. In proofreading the Gregory list, this slight variation in title has not always been observed. The title of the second *Forhandlingar* should be the Danish *Forhandlinger* and not, as printed, with the Swedish *ar* ending; while the titles of the ninth, twelfth, fifteenth, and seventeenth should be *Forhandlingar*—the Swedish spelling.

The alphabetical subject index arranges congresses under broad subject groupings, such as "Chemistry," "Economics," "Education," etc., and includes after the name the specific years of congresses or first or inclusive dates for those with a long history. This will be of considerable value to searchers.

The average number of meetings recorded is probably no more than three or four for each with several exceeding thirty, such as the conference of the International Law Association with thirty-nine and the congress of the Association littéraire et artistique internationale with forty-one. The holdings of libraries as recorded do not reveal any unexpected distribution. Except for congresses meeting and publishing in the United States (and those are comparatively few), the number of libraries credited with holdings is not large, showing a concentration of holdings in fifteen or twenty of the larger research libraries. Among those found in more than fifty libraries are the following:

International congress of arts and science.

St. Louis, 1904. [Reports]. Boston, New York, Houghton, Mifflin, 1905-7. 8v.

International congress of hygiene and demography.

15, Washington, 1912. Transactions. Washington, Govt. print. off., 1913. 6v in 5.

International congress of pure and applied chemistry.

8, Washington and New York, 1912. [Proceedings. Concord, N.H., Rumford press, 1912-13] 29v.

International congress on school hygiene.

4, Buffalo, 1913. Transactions. [Buffalo, Courier co.] 1914. 5v in 2.

International congress on tuberculosis.

6, Washington, 1908. Transactions. Philadelphia, Fell, 1908. 6v in 8.

International engineering congress.

San Francisco, 1915. Transactions. San Francisco [1916] 12v in 13.

International eugenics congress.

2, New York, 1921. Scientific papers. Baltimore, Williams & Wilkins, 1923. 2v.

International geological congress.

12, Toronto, 1913. Coal resources of the world. Toronto: Morang, 1913. 3v.

Pan American scientific congress.

2, Washington, 1915-16. Proceedings. Washington, Govt. print. off., 1917. 11v.

Universal races congress.

1, London, 1911. Papers on inter-racial problems. London, King, 1911. 485 p.

World power conference.

1, London, 1924. American committee. Prosperity through power development. New York, 1925. 59 p.

The bibliographical details have been reduced to a minimum but are adequate for identification. They include: name and number of congress, place of meeting and date, brief title of individual publications with place and publisher (or printer), date, pagination or volumes, and symbols for libraries holding the title. If no separate proceedings have been issued reference is frequently made to accounts published in periodicals or in other sources. This is an important feature of considerable reference value. It should be noted also that publications other than the proceedings, when sponsored by the congress, are recorded. Diplomatic congresses and those convened under the auspices of the League of Nations are not included. This excludes such congresses as the London Naval Conference (1930), the Geneva Disarmament Conference (1932), and the series of Pan-American conferences of which the recent one at Lima was the eighth (International American Conference).

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## REVIEWS

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*The library of tomorrow: a symposium.* Edited by EMILY MILLER DANTON. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. ix+191. \$2.50.

This book should be reviewed by a member of the intelligent laity, for whom, according to the Introduction, it was written. A librarian confronted with the task finds it necessary to revise considerably his customary view of writings about libraries else he is reduced to separating the few grains of the new from the great chaff of reiteration. For this book is propaganda directed not at the librarian who knows—or has had the opportunity to know—nearly all the things set forth between its covers but at the intelligent layman, the sociologist, the educator, the political scientist, and “others concerned with the future of American civilization.” It is apparent from the program of the book that the intelligence quotient anticipated of the hypothetical layman is rather high.

As mass propaganda the book is unsound. The twenty contributors representing many kinds of library activities and the few specialists in related fields have been given their heads. Their views are sometimes conflicting, sometimes tentative; their style is sometimes charming, occasionally dull with the boredom of a conscientious attack on a worthy assignment, and once, I think, reflecting the glow of an angry man impatient with the follies of his fellows. This is not the carefully calculated attack on sensibilities that earmarks “Grade A” propaganda. There is a question, therefore, as to the success of the volume's future, for the layman of the required intelligence may already be aware of most of the book's contents.

The articles detail the manifold forms of library service—in cities, schools, colleges, businesses, and federal government; its problems—support, personnel, quarters, trusteeship; its obligations—as a manifestation of free speech, to represent a question equally and impartially, to underwrite the continued education of citizens; its future—co-operation, extension of services, the possibility of seeing other agencies absorb some of its traditional activities or assume new ones appropriate to libraries. The list of contributors is impressive. Lydenberg, Putnam, Ferguson, Milam, Jennings, and Roden suggest the generation representing the craft; Keppel, Bryson, Wriston, Marcus, and Fisher constitute the roll of the laity.

Concern with certain topics is common to a number of contributors—for instance, four or more make observations regarding the function of the library in a democracy. Unremarkable for its frequency, this reference underlines the need for a classic statement of the value of libraries to society. Co-

operation, regionalism, and integration are facets of another problem recognized by several writers. It is Downs's specific task to project into the future some present or imagined means for promoting greater co-operation. Query: What would be the effect on scholarship of conserving increasingly greater quantities of material and of providing readier access to them and to materials already conserved? Does more minute, scholarly specialization parallel growing increments in the records of communication?

Joeckel describes the integration of library activities on a national scale under national leadership from Washington; Putnam outlines aspects of this leadership which might emanate from the national library. Mitchell deals with co-operation from the standpoint of the development of scholarship and scholarly personnel. Personnel is another common interest of the contributors, with Rush and Mitchell speaking by assignment or by interest. Both emphasize the need, on the part of library schools, for greater concern with the insides of books, as opposed to techniques for their organization. The case for extensive, as opposed to intensive, scholarship merits consideration by library schools. It is pleasant to the reviewer to observe that Mitchell, Milam, Lowe, and Wriston all mention, in greater or less detail, the desirability of undergraduate library service in large colleges and universities—a device and a need obvious to the university librarian but yet to be realized.

It is likely that different readers will be attracted by different articles. It is perhaps to be expected that no one reader might will to read all. This reviewer finds six articles of especial interest to him in that they set forth new facts, new ideas, or present old ones in an arresting and stimulating form.

Joeckel and Mishoff offer in briefer form the substance of the first author's "Staff study," No. 11, prepared for the President's Advisory Committee on Education. This blueprint for a national plan deserves the extended circulation promised by publication here. Milam's contribution, entitled "Experimentation," is a distillation of the notebook of one in his position. It records eleven fields for experimentation, none of which is beyond the bounds of current possibility. "Libraries and scholarship," by Mitchell, airs the problem everywhere confronting scholarly libraries—the need for personnel with some knowledge about the insides of books. Wriston, in "College and university libraries," notes that this kind of library is tied to the policy of its parent-institution, that until colleges and universities determine their aims and clearly differentiate their functions their libraries cannot operate at maximum effectiveness. R. Russell Munn argues the case for impartial display of the advanced, as well as the conservative, side of social questions and hints at unwitting censorship by librarians who are blandly ignorant of social forces at work. Putnam extrapolates in "The future of the Library of Congress" the lines of development laid down in the national library during his administration. Librarians of large scholarly libraries might read and meditate thereon.

There is cause to question the success of this volume with the group at which it is aimed. Is the intelligent layman objectively interested enough in libraries to weather the confusion of rapidly shifting subject matter and viewpoints inherent in the symposium form? Will not the sociologist, the educator, the political scientist demand a discussion that more thoroughly integrates the library with the social forces molding it? If these observations are right, two other books are called for—an artfully written (and illustrated) popular story of modern library service for general consumption, and a series of sociohistorical studies of the origins of library service and its place in modern society.

DONALD CONEY

University of Texas  
Austin

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*The wider public library.* By ERIC LEYLAND. London: Grafton, 1938. Pp. xiv+191. 7s. 6d. net.

For American librarians, this eager plea for extension of public relations and adult-education activities in British libraries is not imperative reading. Wheeler's *The library and the community* and Learned's *The American public library and the diffusion of knowledge* have already more fully and wisely indicated goals for American libraries. It could be used, however, with great advantage in staff discussion groups, for it is replete with controversial statements in compact, forceful style. Between the lines it is full of the atmosphere of ordinary English daily life and the author's enthusiastic youthful personality.

MARGERY QUIGLEY

Free Public Library  
Montclair, New Jersey

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*Actes du Comité International des Bibliothèques: II<sup>me</sup> session, Bruxelles, 4-5 juillet, 1938.* (International Federation of Library Associations, "Publications," Vol. X.) La Haye: Martinus Nijhoff, 1938. Pp. 189. Fr. sw. 8.

It is difficult to review critically a publication such as this which is concerned almost exclusively with recording the proceedings of an association and with giving a factual account of the reports of its various officers, committees, and constituent members. Only with considerable temerity and presumption will an "outsider" venture to pass judgment on what an association is doing or how it is carrying on its activities. Equally, one would hesitate to suggest that there might be other fields of endeavor more profitable or more worth while than some of those which now engage its attention. A factual statement concerning the activities of the *Comité* and the contents of the volume may be more helpful in any case.

The International Library Committee—that is, the *Comité International*

*des Bibliothèques*—it will be recalled, is the permanent executive body of the International Federation of Library Associations, and in that Federation American librarianship has an undoubted stake. For one thing, American librarians played an important role in its founding and have since been active in its progress. Our stake is a material one, also, for we are by far the largest single contributor to the Federation's income—nearly one-fifth of its receipts come from librarians here and in Canada by way of dues paid in by the American Library Association. It takes the A.L.A. dues of about one hundred individuals to pay for our membership in the Federation. For these reasons alone, and leaving entirely out of consideration such questions as international co-operation or the benefits to be derived from interchanges of opinions and experiences with librarians in other countries, we, on this side of the Atlantic, should have a considerable interest in the Federation, the Committee, and hence the *Actes*.

The present volume, like its predecessors, may be divided into two parts. The first, comprising nearly ninety pages, gives the addresses, secretary's and treasurer's report, reports of subcommittees and of representatives of allied or member-associations, and the like, as presented at the Brussels meeting. The second part of eighty-two pages (approximately half the volume) consists of statements—generally written by officials in the several national library associations—on the progress, activities, and developments in the library field in individual countries.

Like our national association, the International Library Committee accomplishes much of its work by means of committees and subcommittees. It is interesting to note the range and the activities of these *sous-commissions*: (1) international interlibrary loan—member-associations are being asked to have designated in their countries a central clearing office, preferably in the national library; (2) international statistics of book production—a form for the gathering of data is in process of preparation; (3) international library statistics—member-associations have been asked to secure comparable data from three or four libraries in their countries, and the Committee on International Relations of the American Library Association is at present considering this question; (4) popular libraries; (5) exchange of university theses; (6) unification of cataloging rules; (7) "parliamentary" libraries; (8) standardization in the field of books and periodicals; (9) cost and overproduction of periodicals; (10) hospital libraries; and (11) special libraries and centers of documentation.

The scope of activities engaged in, as indicated above, is such that almost any librarian may be sure of finding in the *Actes* something of professional interest. The committee and subcommittee reports, when taken over a period of years, provide an important record not merely of development in this or that phase of library work but also, and possibly for these times even more significant, of international co-operation.

The second half of recent volumes of the *Actes* constitutes an excellent



and probably the best single source for information on library activities throughout the major countries of the world. The volume under review is no exception, although the individual articles naturally differ greatly in approach, content, length, and quality. The following are included, virtually all reports being for 1937 and 1938 or for 1937-38: German scientific libraries (5 pages); the German popular library (3 pages); library activity in Belgium (1 page); the Vatican (2 pages); popular libraries in Spain during the war (3 pages); protection of Spanish archives and libraries during the war (4 pages); the libraries of Finland (3 pages); the Bibliothèque Nationale (3 pages); French university libraries (7 pages); French municipal libraries (4 pages); the Association of French Librarians (1 page); Report of the (British) Library Association (10 pages); the libraries of Hungary (2 pages); the libraries of Iran (5 pages); Italian libraries (3 pages); libraries in Japan (4 pages); library progress in Norway (2 pages); libraries in the Netherlands (1 page); Polish libraries (3 pages); Swedish libraries (2 pages); Swiss libraries (3 pages); scientific libraries in Czechoslovakia (6 pages—is this a last report?); and the libraries of Yugoslavia (1 page). The list varies somewhat from year to year. In the preceding volume, for example, China, Denmark, Lithuania, and North America were represented, but Norway—present here—was not. Certain reports—such as that for North America—have been biennial.

The writer has had frequent occasion to use intensively this and earlier volumes of the *Actes* and for that reason deplores the lack of indexes. Each volume includes a fairly detailed Table of Contents and a List of Appendixes which, because of the discrete and separate nature of the various sections, serve pretty well. But a personal and topic index would be helpful.

The reader may be interested to know that the International Library Committee is scheduled to meet in Berlin, Leipzig, and Mainz in 1940.

J. PERIAM DANTON

*Sullivan Memorial Library*  
*Temple University*  
*Philadelphia*

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*Professional library education: introducing the library.* By NORA E. BEUST. ("U.S. Office of Education bulletin," No. 23, 1937.) Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. v+75. \$0.15.

"The purpose of this bulletin is to give the prospective library school student information about libraries and the library profession that will help him to determine for himself the vocational possibilities in the library field and the kinds of preparation required for the various fields of service." It should be required reading for the beginning library school student, for whom it is even more adequate as an introduction to the field than it is for the prospective student. For the latter it will serve as a much needed addition to the literature for vocational guidance.

The author opens with a brief characterization of "the modern library" and continues with a note on "historical background." The principal part of the study is given to two topics—"Range of the modern library" and "Library schools and the library profession"—with a short description of library organizations between.

Under "Range of the modern library" libraries are classified as (1) public library—large city, medium city, town, village, and county or regional; (2) school library—college, university, teachers college, secondary, and elementary; and (3) special library—business, professional, governmental, institutional, and private. The description of large public libraries occupies well over half this section, and most of the portion is devoted to public libraries. The work of the library is described by departments: chief librarian; order, catalog, reference, periodical, circulation, children's, young people's, and schools departments; readers' advisory service; editorial and publicity departments; and branch department. The other types of libraries are described much more briefly.

The most satisfactory portion of the bulletin is that which deals with "Library schools and the library profession." Brief consideration is given a number of topics, including "Establishment of the first library schools," "An outline of the activities studied in the library school curriculum," "Selection of students," and others. The section describing accredited library schools includes a six-page table giving for each school the purpose of the curriculum, the degrees granted, the minimum entrance requirements, fees, costs of textbooks, field work and living, and the scholarships and loans available. The author's text throughout is supplemented by the judicious use of about fifty quotations and by more than thirty reproductions of photographs, drawings, charts, pictorial graphs, and tables.

The study may be criticized adversely on a number of points, most of which, in view of its purpose, may be considered to be of minor importance. After classifying county and regional libraries under "public library," the author proceeds to state that the "public libraries in the United States may be regarded as municipal libraries. . . ." If the "larger unit" is to receive its due recognition as an important agency for public library service, the narrow meaning of the term "public library" should not be perpetuated. The "medium and small public libraries" are given but one-half page, which, considering the fact that most of the public libraries in the United States are of this category, does not do justice to their importance in the picture of library service. The responsibility of libraries for the preservation of books is no more than mentioned, even under "university libraries."

The principal fault in the study is the manner of presentation, although it is a weakness common to many of our efforts to explain to those outside the profession what we, as librarians, conceive to be our job. Instead of getting directly at a discussion of the functions served by the library and the processes involved, the approach is indirect—through a description of the

departments of a large public library. The weakness of this is illustrated by the absence of a book-selection department from those described, resulting in an underemphasis of this important function. It should be possible to present the lay reader with a statement of the objectives of the library and a description of the services offered without the incumbrance of the details of organization and techniques. The outline of "Activities entailed in library work," quoted by the author from Ernest J. Reece's *Curriculum in library schools* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1936), is suggestive as the basis for such a presentation. The reviewer conceives of an approach to this problem through a generalized discussion of the functions served by libraries *in toto*, followed by descriptions of various types of libraries in which the manner and the degrees to which each of those functions is realized would be presented. Much of the material in the present study would fit admirably into such a pattern if it were divorced from its close association with administrative organization.

In spite of these criticisms it should be said that Miss Beust has made an important contribution to a weak point in library literature. Her study should receive wide use. It is to be hoped that she will revise it from time to time, especially as it becomes necessary to report significant changes in the opportunities offered by the profession and in the programs offered by the library schools. Already some of the details are out of date.

HERMAN H. HENKLE

Simmons College  
Boston

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*The special library profession and what it offers: surveys of fifteen fields.* Compiled by MARIAN C. MANLEY. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1938. Pp. 128. \$1.00.

We can thank the able editorship of Miss Marian C. Manley, who for the last five years has piloted the course of *Special libraries*, for making available in book form this series of articles which appeared in the magazine during the years 1934-37. This volume of reprints gives the library world a good picture of the special library profession looking at itself, and it adds another title to the all-too-brief bibliography of special library textbooks. The growing recognition of the need for training in special library work is paralleled by the realization of the need for a more complete literature pertaining to the various phases of the work. A large portion of the existing bibliography on special libraries, dealing largely with fugitive and ephemeral materials, is in itself in the nature of fugitive material. The bibliographies which support each chapter in this book bear out this statement.

The Table of Contents reveals at a glance the great variety of interests covered by the term "special libraries." In fact, a layman running his eye down the column would be struck with wonder that "art museum libraries,"

"commercial libraries," "municipal reference libraries," "engineering libraries," "religious libraries," etc., can have much in common. But Miss Manley's definition of a special library—"A special library is a special collection serving a special clientele and using special methods for the purpose"—provides the key which locks them together.

Library schools will find this volume a good recruiting and vocational guidance aid, since, although it contains no specific job analyses, it provides an over-all prospectus of the varied nature of the field and gives a clear-cut picture of each type of library. Moreover, the two opening articles by Miss Manley and Miss Hansen contain pointed remarks on training for special librarianship.

The very fact that these chapters are reprints over a period of years explains the lack of uniformity in type fonts and paper, which gives the volume a rather disjointed character and accounts to some extent for the unevenness in quality of the contents. Other unfortunate facts are the lack of an index and consecutive pagination. But these defects are compensated for by the very low price at which the book is offered.

LUCILE L. KECK

*Joint Reference Library*  
Chicago

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*Branch libraries: modern problems and administration.* By HENRY A. SHARP. ("Practical library handbooks," No. 6.) London: Allen & Unwin, 1938. Pp. 134. 5s. net.

Though branch library systems have become the largest service medium through which public libraries reach their constituents, there is an incongruous dearth of current literature on the problems of these outlying agencies. Because of this, unusual importance attaches to the recent volume on branch libraries in Great Britain by Henry A. Sharp, deputy librarian of the Croydon Public Libraries, who twice has made extensive tours of American libraries.

As one of the series of "Practical library handbooks," the scope of the volume is properly limited to the practical fundamentals inherent in the upbuilding and conduct of branch library systems in England and Scotland. Discussion of the more refined principles of branch administration—formulas for the equitable distribution of staffs, means for preserving for each branch the independence necessary for its best development without sacrificing institutional unity, and other special problems that now confront the larger and more mature branch systems of this country—are not included. Nevertheless, the volume is valuable both as a modern guide for administrators inexperienced in branch extension work and as a foreign pattern against which we may lay our own relatively uniform branch systems for comparative scrutiny.

Under six broad chapter headings—"General problems," "Planning,"

"Staffing," "Relations with the central library," "Book selection," and "County branch libraries"—the author gives in compact form most of the currently accepted principles governing the successful operation of branch library systems. Among these will be found brief statements regarding the number of branches desirable and their location with regard to outlying business centers; the type of buildings found most practical, with building layouts, necessary equipment, and departments to be established; the number and composition of staffs and the duties of a branch administrator, as well as those of the superintendent of branches; and information of similar character covering virtually all phases of branch administration. Intermingled are statements which, though indorsed by forward-looking leaders, have not yet been accorded general acceptance in practice—for example, that "easy" chairs and other informal equipment "can make all the difference between just a public institution and the most used of all social service buildings" and that "the day of the Windsor chair has gone." Still other statements, while interesting, probably rest on no firmer foundation than the writer's opinion. These comments are not intended to belittle the book or even to challenge these particular facts, but rather to guide prospective readers of the volume.

Overshadowing in interest to readers in this country are the differences to be noted between English and American branch libraries. A few specific instances will best serve to illustrate this point.

1. Library service for children in England has obviously not reached the level on which it is operated in this country.
2. On the other hand, group study by adults of present-day economic and political problems, reading circles, and radio-listening groups are far better established as library activities there than here.
3. The display and use of magazines in an English branch is relatively slight, although newspaper rooms, which are practically unknown in branch work here, are a commonplace.
4. Certain building equipment—such as window shades or blinds—which we think of as indispensable, are presented in a manner suggesting a plea for their acceptance.
5. Bookshelves are placed at more usable heights than is true in this country. Bottom shelves are at least fifteen or eighteen inches above the floor, while the top shelves "should not exceed six feet." This contrasts sharply with common practice in America.
6. Also, in the light of American experience it is interesting to note the author's statement that "often the librarian-in-charge is a man, while his second-in-command is a woman, but as she is left in charge for some hours each day there can quite obviously be no serious reason why, if the library authority thinks fit, the librarian-in-charge should not be a woman."

The book concludes with an Appendix composed of factual data regarding selected modern branch libraries. Much of this data, which includes building construction and operating costs, will be of little practical value to American readers. However, though the volume leaves untouched certain problems pressing for attention in this country, and though it is addressed to an English audience, it is a useful, inclusive handbook and one that will prove thought-provoking as well.

RALPH A. ULVELING

*Detroit Public Library*

*Hospital libraries.* By E. KATHLEEN JONES. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xiii+208. \$2.50.

This book is entirely different from the author's previous volume, *The hospital library*, published in 1923. Chapter headings include: "Books and therapy," "Types of hospitals and forms of service," "The hospital librarian," "Organization and routine," "Professional libraries," "Occupational therapy and the library," "The development of hospital libraries," and "The present and the future."

The author tells of the growth and development of hospital libraries from their beginning (prior to the World War) up to the present. She describes the various types of service and gives an interesting record of the committees which aided in this growth. She stresses the importance of the hospital librarian's having adequate training and being able to adjust herself to hospital life, the value of internship, and the necessity for knowledge of bibliotherapy, so that high standards may be maintained.

The organization of the hospital library is well defined. The Appendix includes a study on "The results of reading in United States Veterans' Administration hospital libraries," as well as records, charts, and case citations from other hospital libraries—all of which offer valuable information. Subject headings of the Appendix are: "Studies in bibliotherapy," "Costs," "Book reviews and publishers' series," "Sources and supplies mentioned in books," and "Bibliography of periodical articles."

Miss Jones's book will serve as a guide to hospital librarians, physicians, and nurses, and it will prove interesting to laymen. To hospital librarians who have recently entered the profession it will, no doubt, be an incentive to develop high standards; and it will probably inspire all hospital librarians to further development of bibliotherapy. Reference notes in the book prove that bibliotherapy has been recognized by outstanding physicians as a means of rehabilitation. This fact will probably lead to the organization of more hospital libraries.

SADIE PETERSON-DELANEY

*United States Veterans' Administration Facility*  
*Tuskegee, Alabama*

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*Books for self-education.* By SIGRID EDGE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. 95. \$0.75; ten or more copies, \$0.65 each.

The problem of easy reading on adult subjects is one of perennial interest to readers' advisers, group leaders, and the rapidly increasing number of grown people who are attempting to educate themselves through books. This new pamphlet by Sigrid Edge should, therefore, be enthusiastically received.

It is a companion piece to the Felsenthal and Hoit lists. The former, published in 1929, was the first attempt to compile a list of readable books of

educational value which might interest adults with limited knowledge of the subjects treated and of such educational background as to necessitate simple language, brevity of statement, and informal treatment. This is an attempt to bring the Felsenthal list up to date. Like its predecessor, it is aimed at the Group III type of reader described by Miriam Tompkins in her article "What is a readable book?" in the *Booklist* of March, 1934. Like it also, it is a co-operative venture, as far as the inclusions are concerned.

Miss Edge, now an instructor at Simmons College Library School, conceived the idea, while she was assistant readers' adviser in the New York Public Library, of pooling the experiences of readers' advisers throughout the country as to the subjects in greatest demand by Group III readers and the titles found most satisfactory in meeting this demand. The result is this 95-page booklet of 500 titles, pleasing in format and interesting in selection.

The books are grouped under six heads: "Success in daily living," "Cultural background," "Successful home life," "Earning a living," "Social and economic problems," and "Biography and travel"; and it is worthy of note that these headings were suggested by all canvassed libraries in exactly the same order. It might also be pointed out that they coincide perfectly with the objectives of adult education as phrased by its leaders.

As in the Hoit list, the subjects are broad and also show the adult-education influence in that they are phrased as the average adult and not the cataloger would phrase them—"Philosophy of living," "Good manners," "Marriage and family relationships." The number of titles under each varies according to the popularity of the subject and the availability of material, and so there are forty-nine titles for psychology and three for law. There is a nice mixture of old and new. Care is taken to recommend only the most recent books on such subjects as science, technology, and business, where date is important. On the other hand, when an old book is still the best or the only one on the subject—as Caffin's 1904 book on *How to study pictures*—that, too, is listed.

Like Felsenthal and contrary to Hoit, there are many out-of-print books; but this is as it should be, since this list is not designed for a buying-list or as a tool for the readers' adviser. Rather, it is itself a silent readers' adviser, to be purchased and used by the individual wishing to direct his own reading. As such, also, its annotations are simple and direct, detailed when necessary—as in the case of psychology and science—and correspondingly brief on biography and travel; and the types of readers are clearly indicated where, for instance, there are such different treatments of the same subject, as the histories of Krapp and Adams.

Considering the complete unanimity of opinion with regard to the subjects covered, the lack of agreement on particular titles under these subjects seems rather surprising. Why, for instance, out of thirty-seven libraries, should only twelve recommend Durant's *Story of philosophy*, only three recommend



Pitkin's *Art of rapid reading*, and only nineteen recommend Parsons' *Stream of history*? One suspects the recommendations would have been considerably more uniform had a composite list of all titles been first compiled and then sent back to the libraries to be checked.

Many of the titles suggested are too difficult for any but the exceptional person in this group of readers. In fact, many of them were listed by Miss Tompkins for the higher-grade reader. This, however, is not the fault of the compiler. It is rather an indication of lack of more suitable material and also of the many factors which may offset lack of technical reading ability and enable an adult to enjoy a book which would otherwise be too difficult for one of his degree of formal schooling.

For these reasons and for differing ideas concerning simplicity in reading few people will ever agree on any selection of this nature. The usefulness of this one lies in the fact that it brings fairly recent and readable material together under subject, and it is the result of actual practice in selecting this type of reading for adults. It is also the sort of list the average person would like to own and check for his own reading.

ALICE M. FARQUHAR

*Chicago Public Library*

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*American fiction, 1774-1850: a contribution toward a bibliography.* By LYLE H. WRIGHT. San Marino, Calif.: Huntington Library, 1939. Pp. xviii+246. \$3.50.

This bibliography, long needed, is a very useful addition to the all too few reliable and moderately complete bibliographies in the field of American writing. The work, on the whole, is well done both as to content and form. There were, of course, bound to be some omissions; and my contribution to the list of them (and I think it will be a small list) is William Porter's collection of tales—*The big bear of the Arkansas*.

A useful addition to the usual bibliographical data is found in the indication of the time and scene of most of the listed novels. I wish this note could have been extended to include a word or two about the general nature of the work.

Some few strictures are to be made on the general form of the entries. The plan followed is to list the books under the author's name, when known; otherwise, by title. It seems to me that listing in alphabetical order and in the same kind of type both the author's name and the name of anonymous titles leads to some little confusion, especially when the title of the novel is the name of a person. Had one form of type been used for authors' names and another for anonymous titles, the entries would have been clearer. Cross-references are not always complete. For example, under *The debtor's prison* it is stated that the authorship of that novel was, on one occasion, attributed to Asa Greene; but in the entry on Asa Greene there is no reference to *The*

*debtor's prison*. On the other hand, there is space wasted by giving the same information under two headings.

These slight defects, however, will detract little from the book's great general usefulness.

NAPIER WILT

*University of Chicago*

*Palaeography and archives: a manual for the librarian, archivist and student.*

By H. G. T. CHRISTOPHER; with an Introduction by J. D. STEWART.

London: Grafton, 1938. Pp. xv+216. 10s. 6d. net.

This book is intended as a guide for students planning to take the examinations of the School of Librarianship and the Library Association. Thus, an American reviewer, concerned with the book's value for American students, must consider it not in its achievement of its main purpose but only in its incidental usefulness for other purposes—e.g., as a compilation of material on these two subjects which was "scattered" and "almost entirely unconnected" and as a "practical manual for the local archivist" or for the librarian who is called upon to do this kind of work. The definition of an "archive" as a document "drawn up or used in the course of an administrative or executive transaction" and the book's specific concern with English local archives indicate the measure of its usefulness to the American librarian, who will find it suggestive in dealing with the occasional official documents—English or other—that come into his charge, and not very helpful in handling miscellaneous "archives" of private papers, correspondence, etc.

Viewing it as a collection of material from scattered sources, the reviewer must confess that he is not greatly impressed with the number of sources used (listed on pp. 198–200) or with the amount of material taken from most of them. The chapter on palaeography seems to the reviewer less comprehensive, correct, and up to date than the article "Palaeography" in the *Britannica*, and for the late medieval and early modern periods does little more than refer to other sources.

The compilation appears to be chiefly from Thompson's *Handbook of Greek and Latin palaeography*, Madan's *Books in manuscript*, and—for the Latin minuscule book hand—Lowe's chapter on "Handwriting" in Crump and Jacob's *Legacy of the Middle Ages*.

In the chapters on archives the reviewer notes little that he does not recall having read in Jenkinson's *Manual of archive administration*; and, wherever matters of building, installation, and physical treatment of manuscript documents are concerned, the American librarian will find it necessary further to assemble his own practical information from American sources, even though American archival science as a whole may be considered still in its infancy.

The Bibliography (Appen. II) is "selected" from those included in four works on palaeography and archives and as many general bibliographies—

all good for their own purposes and in their own periods, but none of them complete or up to date in 1938. The inclusion of "almost every palaeographical work up to and including 1880" is out of place in a selected list in an elementary book of this sort, and the limitation for the years after 1880 to "works in the English tongue and standard foreign works" leads to the omission of such cheap and convenient facsimiles as the Lietzmann series of *Tabulae in usum scholarum*. The omission of Ullman's *Ancient writing*, the (British) Palaeographical Society's facsimiles, etc., is a question of another sort.

However, the book makes no pretensions to being other than an elementary introduction; and, if one prefers to begin with an introduction to the contents of, say, half a dozen bigger and better books, Mr. Christopher's book may be recommended as a starting-point—provided the reader does not stop at that.

HENRY BARTLETT VAN HOESEN

Brown University  
Providence, Rhode Island

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*A reference guide to the literature of travel; including voyages, geographical descriptions, adventures, shipwrecks and expeditions, Vol. I: The Old World.* By EDWARD GODFREY COX. ("University of Washington publications in language and literature," Vol. IX.) Seattle: University of Washington, 1935. Pp. ix+401.

*A reference guide to the literature of travel; including voyages, geographical descriptions, adventures, shipwrecks and expeditions, Vol. II: The New World.* By EDWARD GODFREY COX. ("University of Washington publications in language and literature," Vol. X.) Seattle: University of Washington, 1938. Pp. vii+591+[4].

The aim and scope of these volumes are set forth by their compiler as follows:

What I have endeavored to do in these two volumes is to list in chronological order, from the earliest date ascertainable down to and including the year 1800, all the books on foreign travels, voyages, and descriptions printed in Great Britain, together with translations from foreign tongues and Continental renderings of English works—that is to say, so far as they have come to my notice. Many titles must of necessity have escaped my net. In fact new ones have cropped up since this work has gone to press. But I can well believe that what is missing will be found to have little renown. Small fry, such as tracts and pamphlets, were allowed to slip through, save such as turned up with the more substantial catch. Despite my vigilance a sufficient number of these have crept into the company of more legitimate titles as to endanger the integrity of my original purpose and give a tinge of *ana* to the collection. . . . No consistent attempt has been made to exhaust the list of modern reprints; what is given of these is to be looked upon as an overflow of generosity on my part. The Addenda takes care of first printings of earlier works done in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The notes, which are of a varied assortment, are, like the titles, the cullings from many sources, and are duly accredited to their rightful owners. The geographical sections under which works are listed are not and cannot be sharply dividing. It will be evident

sometimes that a given title could just as well have been placed elsewhere. The dates standing in the outermost margin are presumably those of the first printings unless otherwise stated in the text.

This excerpt inevitably presages many months of work (the two volumes are printed two and one-half years apart, and a third volume is more than hinted); the assembling and close scrutiny of thousands of titles (a rough count shows 5,600 with an Index of 2,200 personal names); the difficulties of accurately classifying these titles under 34 subject groups; and the laborious perfecting of every title and the search for the best descriptive notes when personal examination and annotation were impossible.

The compiler's statement also suggests some unfortunate limitations—such as his uncritical disparagement of the value of tracts and pamphlets, the smug assumption that titles which he failed to find must be of "little renown," his casual confession that the list of modern reprints was not worth making complete, and his seeming overreliance on unverified descriptions and annotations taken from booksellers' catalogs.

As to arrangement—Volume I covers "The Old World," with 2,400 titles grouped under the headings "Collections," "Circumnavigations" (175 titles), "General travels and descriptions," "Continental Europe," "West Europe" (574 titles), "North Europe," "East Europe," "Near East" (292 titles), "Far East," "Central Asia," "East Indies" (363 titles), "Siberia," and "Africa" (284 titles).

Volume II, on "The New World," claims 3,200 titles grouped under twenty-one headings, which, besides the obvious names of continents and regions, are captioned "Northwest passage," "Northeast passage," "Directions for travellers" (none of its 81 titles relate to the New World!), "Geography," "Navigation," "Maps and atlases" (a "selection" only), "Military expeditions," "Naval expeditions," "Adventures, disasters, shipwrecks" (106 titles), "South Seas" (with 15 titles about Bligh and the "Bounty"), "Fictitious voyages and travels" (Gulliver, Crusoe, Munchausen, and 95 other curious and interesting fakes), "General reference" (374 titles), and "Bibliographies" (201 titles).

Nearly a third of all titles in Volume II fall into the chapters on "North America" (838) and "West Indies" (212).

The last two chapters in Volume II afford librarians an opportunity to judge whether the familiar material listed is so pertinent, organized, and presented as to be of easiest and most effective use. The first of these chapters, "General reference," is chiefly duplicate items which are mostly in the body of the work, properly assigned to subject groups. Many more of these so-called "reference titles" could have been so classified. The result of this is that material by and about great travelers—e.g., Marco Polo, Frobenius, and Magellan—is scattered instead of together. The excellent Index remedies this only partially. Many titles, too, while standard reference material, are so remote from the subject of travel as to be rather superfluous here. If all

duplicates were removed, all possible items carefully classified, unrelated titles excised, and the bibliography transferred to the proper group, "General reference" would disappear, to the distinct advantage of those who use the book.

The chapter on "Bibliographies" in Volume II contains material that is all pertinent—indeed, it could be considerably improved by the addition of many obvious and useful titles. Your reviewer's copy is marked up with far too many mistakes—wrong or awkward author entry, mistakes in dates, omissions of forenames, of paging, of essential parts of titles, of index or supplementary volumes, of latest editions, misspelled names, etc.

To summarize—the two volumes probably contain more titles on travel than have ever been brought together in one place. The material is well presented, with full titles for the most part and in a logical and helpful classification. Many helpful cross-references increase its value, and the Index has few mistakes. Annotations are numerous. While material naturally is most abundant for the Western Hemisphere the great names in travel are all present. The compiler's date and language limitations—London before 1800—were necessary if he were not to be swamped; yet the book suffers less than might be expected, for most notable and important travel before 1800 soon reached a London printing, and Dr. Cox nearly always traces back to the *editio princeps*.

The book's weakness is a distressing lack of dependable accuracy—an insufficient systematic, consistent organization and mastery of those meticulous details which are essential to the best bibliographic work but which are seldom known or practiced by writers and compilers of books.

But this review must not end on a severely critical note. Perfection in bibliographic work is so difficult as to be well nigh unattainable. Perhaps that is its spur and fascination. For the zeal which has moved a busy professor of English to make this brave excursion into another and highly technical field; for the patience and endurance which have so usefully assembled, regimented, and annotated so large a group of books in a subject of prime interest and significance to scholars and those in libraries who stand by in aid of scholars—we tender gratitude and congratulation.

J. I. WYER

*Salt Lake City, Utah*

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*The illustrated book.* By FRANK WEITENKAMPF. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938. Pp. xiii+314. \$5.00.

The curator of prints of the New York Public Library presents a history of the illustrated book in Europe and America extending from the block book to the productions of the present day. After discussing the principles which must guide the use, in books, of "pictures in relation both to the author's text and to the printed page," Mr. Weitenkampff takes up chronologically by development the history of the various graphic art techniques as employed

in book illustration. By severely compressing a large amount of material, he is able to sketch this history in considerable detail.

This handsome volume—which its author's definition (p. 3) precludes us from terming an "illustrated book"—is elaborately documented with ninety-five reproductions of well-selected and largely unhackneyed illustrations. The Bibliographies and the Index are full and well arranged.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

*Folger Shakespeare Library  
Washington, D.C.*

*Theory of library catalogue.* By S. R. RANGANATHAN; with a Foreword by S. E. RUNGANADHAN. ("Madras Library Association publication series," No. 7.) Madras: Madras Library Association, 1938. Pp. 393.

If one were going to construct a strictly logical review of this latest offering of the indefatigable Mr. Ranganathan, one would proceed in some such sequence as this: (1) Can there be such a thing as a "theory of library cataloging"? (2) Is the present book such a work? (3) If it is such a work, is the task well done—the result worth while?

Obviously, if we follow the dictionary and define "theory" as "the general principles underlying any body of facts," there can be a theory of library cataloging. In fact, in that sense of the word all our cataloging codes—from Cutter down—are "theories" of cataloging. But in the book at hand we have not so much a code or manual, not so much a statement of general principles, as a discussion of the application of certain general principles to a few of our more outstanding cataloging problems. The principles—or, as the author terms them, "laws" and "canons"—were laid down by him in two earlier books. Here he attempts to make practical use of them.

It is true that to some parts of the books "practical" is hardly the word to apply. Opening it at random, one strikes, for example, this paragraph:

If the number of synonyms in the two terms of a Synonymous Doublet be  $p$  and  $q$  respectively the number of additional Alternative Headings will be  $2pq \dots$  the total number of Alternative Headings available to denote the Doublet may be  $2(mn + pq + rs + \dots) \dots$  the formula for the total number of Alternative Headings that may be coined to denote a Specific Subject whose name consists of  $n$  words is  $n!$  ( $p^1 p^2 p^3 \dots p^n + q^1 q^2 q^3 \dots q^n + r^1 r^2 r^3 \dots r^n + \dots$ ).

Now this paragraph—here considerably condensed—sounds pretty formidable, not to say abstruse. But, when the smoke clears away, one discovers that it is only Mr. Ranganathan's way of saying that, when a cataloger is faced with the many possible variants of such a subject heading as "British history," "England history," "English history," etc., he has considerable difficulty in making a consistent choice of form! And if, having digested such a paragraph as the one quoted above, one is tempted to utter the bibliographical equivalent of "So what?" one is reminded that this is a "theory" of cataloging.

The difficulty of formulating a hard and fast code that will lay down all-inclusive rules which will take care of every book coming into the cataloger's ken has been discussed too often and too eloquently in the past to need any restatement here. If Mr. Ranganathan fails to do it in *his* code, he need not be disheartened—it lies in the terms of his problem. There are more variables to be met with in one day's cataloging routine than any calculus ever heard of. When Miss Mann says: "It is almost impossible to make rules for the use of 'see also' references"; when Sharp says: "In all cataloging something must be left to the intelligence of the user"; when Cutter says: "Sometimes one or the other of these reasons must prevail. Each case has to be decided on its own merits"—each of these authorities is referring to a different cataloging problem. Nevertheless, what each, out of the fulness of his experience, is saying is, in essence, that a wholly consistent, explicit, and logical "theory" of cataloging is an unrealizable concept.

And with this conclusion Mr. Ranganathan is really in full agreement. Almost directly following the paragraph quoted he says: "We have here another of the unavoidable factors that tend in the long run to make every library catalog a hotch-potch." In his discussion of "substitutes for names" he refers to "the apparently insoluble difficulty of anonymous works with merely descriptive titles." Between "personal author" and "corporate author," he admits, "many ambiguous cases can still lurk." Cutter's familiar rules for choosing between synonymous headings violate, he regrets, "the Canon of consistency." But "there is no way of removing this discontent." Of suggested subheadings under local place names, he says reluctantly: "Each library must adapt them to its peculiar needs." He discusses at length whether a series entry should be made under the title or the editor of the series, only to conclude, as have all other authorities, that varying degrees of compromise are the only practicable answer.

But this by no means implies that this effort of Mr. Ranganathan's to construct—or to construct in part—a new cataloging code contains no new matter or is otherwise valueless. Quite the contrary. His analysis is careful, and his criticism reasonable. And if, as one reads, he mentally translates his somewhat ponderous "Canons" into everyday English, he is frequently rewarded by a revealingly new angle of interpretation. For instance, the chapter, "Syndetic vs. systematic arrangement" reiterates the defense of the classed catalog, to which his "Classified catalogue code" was in part devoted. And, although to the present library generation such a defense may have something of an atavistic slant, it is impossible to dismiss it casually.

Finally, it is only fair to remember that this volume was written primarily not for Western readers, but for the author's Indian students and colleagues. For them it should prove an admirable introduction to accepted library practice. For us its greatest interest and value lie rather in its discussion of the special problems met with in the cataloging of Indian publications. One wishes



that Mr. Ranganathan would address himself to the task of compiling a manual for the cataloging of materials in this special field; obviously he is well equipped to do it.

FREMONT RIDER

*Wesleyan University  
Middletown, Connecticut*

*Norme per il catalogo degli stampati.* 2d ed. Vatican: Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, 1939. Pp. xii+490.

The first edition of the cataloging rules of the Vatican Library was described in the *Library quarterly*, I (1931), 340-46. As no drastic changes affecting the rules themselves are found in the new edition, there is no need for a detailed description here.

The present revision of the rules of 1931 was intrusted to Professor Igino Giordani, chief of the cataloging department at the Vatican Library and a former student at the University of Michigan School of Library Science. The changes which he and his associates have introduced consist mainly in modifications of headings, additions of illustrations, and a considerable expansion of the appendixes. Among the more important of these changes are the following:

1. Definitions of bibliographic terms, pp. 7-11.
2. Combination of rules 144 and 145 of the first edition into "Sections of societies"—rule 144 in the new edition.
3. The introduction of a rule for "banks" under rule 145, which may seem a little out of place here, as "banks" might better be placed with "institutions"—or, better, as part of a new rule on "firms and business organizations." The explanation is, no doubt, that the division of the corporate entry rules into the four sections found in the Anglo-American code has not been adopted by the Vatican Library.
4. After rule 220 *De imitatione Christi* there is a new rule to cover the index of prohibited books.
5. Under "imprint" there is a new statement containing directions as regards the dates of the Hegira (rule 300). To make room for the new rule the statement on "copyright" (303 in the first edition) has been incorporated as section 6 under 302—"Dates taken from parts of the book other than the title-page."

The new edition contains 490 numbered rules and five appendixes. The latter cover pages 397-463 and, with the new illustrations, account for the considerable increase in the size of the volume. Appendix I is concerned with fifteenth-century books; II, with abbreviations; III, with bibliographic terms translated—in the first edition limited to Italian and English, now expanded to include also French, Spanish, and German, with an Index; IV, with transliteration—Gaelic has been added; and V, with sample cards.

A Spanish, perhaps also an English, translation of the code is contemplated. Whether these translations are to be undertaken by the staff of the Vatican Library alone or in co-operation with librarians or library associations of other countries is not indicated.

It is surprising that the relatively small staff of the Vatican Library has

been able, in less than eleven years, not only to publish these comprehensive rules in two editions but also to print for publication over twenty thousand catalog entries. These accomplishments cannot fail to have a far-reaching effect on the development of catalogs and cataloging in Catholic as well as in other libraries. The results have amply justified the decision of the Carnegie Corporation in 1927 to aid in the reorganization of the Vatican Library.

J. C. M. HANSON

*Sister Bay, Wisconsin*

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*Russkie kollektsionnye zagolovki. Russian corporate headings: a list of over one thousand Russian headings for official and semi-official bodies, based chiefly on the holdings of the Union Library Catalogue, with an attempt at their identification for cataloguing purposes.* By ARTHUR B. BERTHOLD. Philadelphia: Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, 1939. Pp. [7]+52+ix. \$2.00 (distributed by H. W. Wilson).

A few months ago James B. Childs sent out his *Bibliography of official publications and the administrative system in Latin American countries*. Such a guide must have received a warm welcome not only in government offices but particularly in libraries that cannot afford the catalogs of the British Museum, of the Bibliothèque Nationale, the Library of Congress depository catalog, the German *Gesamtkatalog*, and similar reference works from which the information condensed by Mr. Childs in forty-four pages might be extracted—at least in part. The correct names of departments, bureaus, and other government offices of South and Central American countries have long constituted one of the many problems of catalogers who accept the principle of impersonal authorship.

Now Mr. Berthold has performed a similar service in giving the names of Russian official and semiofficial bodies which have so often puzzled our American catalogers. He has gone farther than Childs in that he has included, also, names of academies, societies, and institutions and names of political divisions, cities, and other places. As for transliteration, he follows the scheme established by the Library of Congress.

Guides like those of Berthold and Childs do not attract much attention even in our own professional circles. They will, nevertheless, prove of great value to those who know how to appreciate them—in this case, especially to the assistants charged with the preparation of entries for government publications. And they will do much to counteract the charge of many friends on the other side of the water—and even some on this side—that the acceptance by Cutter, Jewett, *et al.* of the principle of corporate entry (now generally adhered to in American and many other libraries) was a grave error and has led to the development of a system of cataloging that will, in time, prove so complicated and confusing that it must necessarily break down of its own weight.

J. C. M. HANSON

*Sister Bay, Wisconsin*

*Public documents, 1938, with archives and libraries.* Edited by JEROME K. WILCOX and A. F. KUHLMAN. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. 429. \$5.00.

Recognition of the close connection between document and archival practice has been evidenced in the last two years by the publishing in one volume of the annual proceedings of the A.L.A. Committees on Public Documents and on Archives and Libraries. When conference proceedings present a semblance to a manual, they assume first-rank importance as a staff tool. The editors of this volume are to be commended on several scores—for building programs of such high, even level, for diversifying the character of the papers presented, and for presenting them in such usable form. From first page to last there is a quality of awareness to contemporary document and archival problems.

The volume begins with a report by Mr. Wilcox on H.R. 5471 relating to the distribution of public documents to depository libraries. This report analyzes the difficulties encountered by depository libraries in securing complete collections because of the failure of the monthly catalog to list certain and various processed documents. On the black side of the ledger, however, the report commends the bill for making congressional hearings available to all depository libraries. This report is followed by Mr. Wilcox's discussion of a proposed survey of depository libraries which contains several tabular analyses of existing conditions not to be found elsewhere in printed form.

Foreign documents have a place in the sun, since there are papers on the documents of the Scandinavian countries, the British and French colonies, British Columbia, and on the gazettes of foreign countries. Here are valuable source lists for the collector of documents.

Another source list follows in an analysis of the documents of the Rocky Mountain region by Mr. L. C. Merritt. This is followed by a discussion of the state document center plan which was originally proposed in 1930 by the Public Administration Committee of the Social Science Research Council.

The question of training for document custodianship is not neglected. There are papers on training for document work in college and university libraries, in special libraries, and in public libraries.

In his introduction to the archives section of this volume Mr. Kuhlman gives due recognition to the tremendous impetus afforded archival collections by the WPA Historical Records Survey and the availability of workers in archival projects through the federal work-relief program. Mr. Kuhlman further analyzes the papers in the proceedings, calling special attention to the discussion of the technique described by Mr. Douglas McMurtrie as used in the "Inventory of American reprints" and giving his reasons for including the remaining papers in the program.

Miss Norton's contribution of the place of microphotography in manuscript and archival work "supplies an answer to the old question of whether

local manuscripts and archives should be left in the community where they originated or whether they should be centralized in convenient depositories."

Private, as well as public, archives come in for their share of consideration. Notable among papers of this nature are "Principles for the selection of materials for preservation in collections of business records," by Mr. Arthur H. Cole, and "Organization and preservation of manuscript collections in the McCormick Historical Association Library," by Mr. Herbert A. Kellar. The manuscript collections of the Library of Congress, the Harvard Business School, the Minnesota Historical Society, and the University of North Carolina are subjects of other discussions.

Miss Grace Nute and Mr. Dorsey W. Hyde approach the extremely important problem of selection as applied to historical-society manuscript collections and public archives.

Special librarians will be gratified to find an able analysis by Miss Linda Morley of the care of near-print materials in special libraries. She has given us in concentrated form a one-two-three manual of special library practice in the collection and care of ephemeral materials. Miss Claribel Barnett, of the United States Department of Agriculture, follows with an analysis of the near-print publications of that department. Finally, we find a recipe for the repair and preservation of archival and manuscript material in the paper of Mr. A. E. Kimberly.

Thus in conclusion may I restate my claim that this volume is a splendid library tool? Library school instructors in document and archival work will place it near the top of the list of required reading.

LUCILE L. KECK

*Joint Reference Library*  
Chicago

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*Some European architectural libraries: their methods, equipment and administration.* By TALBOT HAMLIN. ("Columbia University studies in library service," No. 5.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. xviii+110. \$3.00.

Seldom are librarians offered a specialized, technical treatise which so satisfactorily serves its purpose as does this one by the well-known author architect, and librarian of the Avery Library of Columbia University.

While the public libraries of the United States—and perhaps our university libraries also—represent the most effective methods of organization and service yet achieved, the problems of the highly specialized collection have not been adequately studied or thoroughly understood by the librarian. Much may be learned from the practices of the older foreign libraries.

This study of fifteen important English and European collections is based on an eight-week investigation made in 1937. It is valuable not only for the amount of detailed practical information clearly set forth, illustrated, and

summarized but also because the author looks at the technical library problems with an appreciation of the needs of the research scholar, of the practicing architect, of the undergraduate student, and of the layman. He is also aware of the financial requirements for ideal service. This comprehensive point of view is indicated by the opening paragraph:

The problem of the special library dealing with architecture and the allied arts is a special and peculiar one, distinct in many respects from the problem of the general library because of its different usage and the different nature of its collections. Like any specialized library, the architectural library must primarily be designed for use by specialists, but unlike the greater number of other special libraries its usage is not limited to them. The history of art and architecture is recognized as an important branch of knowledge in its own right; this creates at once another class of users, and another kind of collections, besides those necessary for practicing architects or architectural students. Moreover, architecture touches life in so many ways that an architectural library is often called on to serve the ordinary cultivated layman, and must be organized to direct him and give him the information and the illustrative matter which he seeks.

The significant methods and points of interest in each of the libraries examined are discussed under the following headings: "Organization and administration"; "Catalogues and cataloguing"; "Classification and arrangement"; and "Physical equipment."

The opening chapter deals with such questions as the variety of use, the physical size of the books, and the semimuseum function of such libraries. The nonbook material—such as photographs, slides, models, and, above all, original drawings—presents one of the chief problems.

The library profession will be grateful for the emphasis placed on personnel—the desirable atmosphere created by the right type of librarian, who "must be a scholar and a lover of books, and must have, through training or experience, a wide and deep knowledge of the broad field of art and archaeological publications."

Despite the fact that the Continental libraries, in particular, often lack funds for adequate staffs and that certain delays and inconveniences in service result, the scholar finds himself welcomed and at home in using the great resources of such libraries as the Albertina, the Uffizi, the Ecole des Beaux Arts, and others.

In the matter of catalogs, perhaps there is not so much to be learned from foreign practice. Catalogs are reported as frequently being "in transition." However, at a time when the form of catalog used in our larger libraries is being questioned, it is profitable to consider examples of various types found abroad, such as the separation of author and subject catalog or the combination of subject catalog and shelf list.

The important question of indexing periodicals is considered but is not answered.

One of Mr. Hamlin's soundest and most helpful observations is that "bad building makes bad classification." The whole subject of an open or a closed

shelf arrangement is thoroughly discussed in its relation to the space available, to the character of the collection and its users, and to a satisfactory system of classification. The ideal solution of a logical classification and convenient length of class numbers is still to be found.

The importance of separate treatment for rare books and of special bibliographies is emphasized.

Note should be made of the two useful appendixes giving an abstract of the classifications of three archeological libraries and subject catalog headings of the library of the Ecole des Beaux Arts.

Both architects and librarians will profit by the presentation of the storage problems—the pros and cons of alcove versus “hall” type of room. The special equipment needed for oversize volumes, for slides, photographs, and for drawings is made clear by numerous interior views, by diagrams, and by detailed descriptions. Here the fine new building and arrangements of the Royal Institute of British Architects throw light on perplexing questions. The importance of architectural drawings in any scholarly collection is being recognized by American libraries, and it is well to be thoroughly informed as to the methods used for the arrangement, protection, exhibition, and cataloging of them by the five libraries having long experience in every phase of this difficult matter. In several of the larger collections drawings are considered and are treated as part of general manuscript material. While the catalog of the Albertina Collection is described as almost ideal, it is suggested that a satisfactory solution would offer one catalog for the layman and a different type to meet the needs of scholars.

The photograph collection is an essential division of the library, and adequate classification is of first importance. The necessity for sufficient space, for special care, and for a special assistant in charge is recognized. The use of thin mounts stored in wooden boxes covered with cloth is recommended. These are filed on shelves, either horizontally or vertically. This system is used in the Courtauld Institute, London, and also in the Frick Art Reference Library, New York.

In dealing with slides and negatives, the question of space required for housing has been considered more important than a classified arrangement, as recommended for photographs. Therefore, compact filing of slides by the *numero currentis* method is recommended, supplemented by a pictorial subject catalog.

The recommendation that photographs be thoroughly classified and that a catalog is unnecessary seems somewhat doubtful if such collections are used by scholars, students, and the public—as they are likely to be in this country.

Individual buildings, paintings, or other works of art are wanted for such a variety of purposes and to illustrate such opposite points of view—historical or critical—that quick reference to the items needed can only be secured by means of a catalog as systematic as that needed for the classified book collection.

On the other hand, whatever advantages of compact storage there may be in the *numero currens* plan for arranging slides, and however elaborate and expensive the pictorial catalog on cards, this hardly seems to outweigh the advantages of a similar classification for both photographs and slides. The possession of both the photograph and the slide of a subject may then be indicated on the same catalog card. The use of a pictorial catalog is a great advantage in any case, if the expense is not too great an obstacle. Users of slides, as well as of photographs, often wish to select those illustrating the complete work of an artist or of a country or of a period. They would save time and would often prefer to handle the slides themselves instead of consulting the catalog, however complete.

With a classified book arrangement all users prefer free access to the shelves but must consult the catalog to cover all the resources of the library on a given subject. The same principle seems to hold true for illustrative material.

The closing chapter, devoted to "The function and place in culture of the large architectural library," is a challenge to those who feel, with the author, that "bare routine is the curse of librarians." They will be encouraged to accept the obligations necessitated by the broadest possible use of the collections under their care. Few librarians are so well qualified as Mr. Hamlin to indicate the type of service that should be offered either to the experienced scholar or to a "public notoriously illiterate in architecture."

ETHELDRED ABBOT

*Ryerson and Burnham Libraries*  
*Chicago Art Institute*

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*Die Bibliotheken der Universität Altdorf.* Von G. WERNER und E. SCHMIDT-HERRLING; with Preface by E. STOLLREITHER. (*Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, Beiheft 69.) Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1937. Pp. [vi]+142.

The plural *Bibliotheken* is significant, since the University Library was only one of the libraries which Erlangen inherited from the University of Altdorf after the latter's dissolution in 1809. The Trew Library (which was the greatest of them), the Alumneum, Stöberleinsche, Deutsche Gesellschaft, and Schwarzsche libraries, and the various private libraries that went into the making of the University Library—all together, as here described, give a clear and instructive picture of that important phase in the development of all great libraries, which might be described as the "Special collections or private library conglomerate." One may attribute the clearness of the picture, in large part at least, to the fact that Altdorf was dissolved before the ways and means of library acquisition and the methods of library administration changed—for the better, of course, from the point of view of practical use of the library, but with an inevitable loss in history and associations.



The passing of the era of special collections, shelved separately, with separate catalogs, with individual bookplates, and even with distinctive bindings, is mourned by more than one librarian of the present day. This policy of library administration appears to have been, with the "scholarchs" of Altdorf as with the early governing boards of college libraries in this country, less a studious deliberate policy than one of *laissez faire*, based not on librarianship but on the lack of it other than as a *Nebenamt* to a professorship and with little or no stipend. We should remember, too, that the same lack of administration which preserved the historic associations of these special collections and protected them from excessive use is also responsible for the loss or destruction of many books which did get into circulation.

The beginnings of the University of Altdorf libraries reach back into the Middle Ages; the Alumneum was a development from a fourteenth-century institution for the instruction of the twelve choir boys of the Church of the Holy Ghost in Nürnberg and was moved to Altdorf in 1575 along with the Obere Schule (founded by Melancthon in 1525). Whatever books may have been in the Alumneum before 1575 were increased by various gifts—notably a book or a dollar contributed by each alumnus, customarily from about 1700 on; and at one time or another its two hundred and fifty (or four hundred?) volumes included at least fifteen important incunabula, seven of which have been identified at Erlangen. The Altdorf Gymnasium of 1575 became an academy in 1578 and a university in 1622.

A sixteenth-century foundation implies a background that is fairly close to Humanistic and Reformation thought and literature; and, while the records of Altdorf's book acquisitions begin only with the very end of the century, the books were written, and the special collections were collected in the thick of this revolutionary period in the history of thought. Thus, even a summary history of the contents of its libraries has a peculiar place in cultural history.

George Siegel was professor of theology and pastor at Altdorf, a good Nürnberg Lutheran but with admitted and apparently—after investigation—permitted Calvinist leanings. His library of 700 works, bought by the University after his death in 1598, was two-thirds theology, including the important Reformation literature along with the Church Fathers and the Scholastics; the other third included the Greek and Latin classics, history, etc. Ludwig Jungermann was professor of botany at Giessen and then at Altdorf. His library, classed according to the departments of university study, contained 62 volumes in theology (chiefly of the Reformation period), 528 in medicine (chiefly botanical), and 413 in philosophy (classical and Humanistic). The fourth department—law—was the chief content of the 1,900 works in the library of Ratskonsulent Johann Christoph Oelhafen von Schöllnbach, presented by his son in 1660.

Thus the story goes on, through the two centuries of the University's ex-

istence, with just enough biographical information about the collectors and just enough descriptive information about their collections to make the story—and the libraries—a coherent and intelligible whole.

The history of the Trew Library, however, takes on the proportions of a monograph in itself—50 of the book's 138 pages. For, in the eighteenth century if not now, "*Illi minime eruditi videntur, quibus Trevvius ignotus est*"; he collected some 34,000 books, 15,000 letters, 59 volumes of portraits, besides museum collections; and his library of medicine and the biological and physical sciences is "ein Spiegelbild seiner gesamten Bestrebungen und gibt damit über die Entwicklung der genannten Wissenschaften sowie ihren zeitgebundenen Zustand in der ersten Hälfte des 18. Jahrhunderts unmittelbar Auskunft."

The great interest of this part of the book lies partly in the personality and career of Dr. Christoph Jacob Trew (these appear only incidentally and the *minime eruditi* should be inspired to read more of him elsewhere) but more in the process of his collecting as it appears in the rich files of letters and documents available to Fräulein Schmidt-Herrling. Since Trew had no children, his library was to provide his "Andenken bey der Nachwelt." He purchased books unstintingly but discriminately in the various book markets of Europe and from other collectors, through commercial agencies and through friends and colleagues in scientific studies; he built his own library, employed his own librarian, and produced a catalog which is only now being superseded by the *Gesamtkatalog der deutschen Bibliotheken*; and, finally, he presented his library to the University of Altdorf as an expression of gratitude to the University because his grandfather, homeless and impoverished in the course of the Thirty Years' War, had found home and employment there.

The Altdorf libraries received other private libraries and many smaller gifts. There were also gifts of money which were invaluable in providing for the purchase of books and their administration; but, eventually, these endowed funds appeared small—in fact, became small in general financial conditions—and even the Trew endowment of 6,000 guilders did not yield sufficient income to carry on subscriptions to journals and series in the Trew Library. Not until 1647 is there any record of a regular annual appropriation for books—of 80 guilders; from 1716 on, the annual budget was about 115 guilders. With such small amounts of money available for the purchase of books, and with the selection of these for the most part in the hands of the rector of the University or the rectors of one of the four faculties rather than in the hands of the librarians, the librarians' influence on the building-up of the library was indirect rather than apparent. Their struggles to administer and catalog the library deserve remembrance but read like those of other early universities.

Nevertheless, the biographical and bibliographical information about them is an interesting part of the record of librarians' contributions to learning and is an epitome of the gradual development of a library profession. The mathe-

matician Johann Prätorius had "eine Art Aufsicht" over the books in 1588; Christoph Speck the first librarian (1621-24), appointed "in Ansehung seiner kleinen Kind und andern Zustandes," wrote textbooks and Latin plays, and made the library available for consultation two hours a day. Daniel Schwenter (1624-36) was orientalist and mathematician and worked diligently at a library catalog; Georg König (1636-54), a theologian, delivered an "oratiuncula," *De studiis virorum illustrium in condendis bibliothecis*, on the occasion of the library's installation in new quarters in 1644, and formulated library regulations. George Matthias König (1654-99), professor of Greek and later of poetry, was what we should call an excellent reference librarian; his colleagues called him their "Varro"; and Fräulein Werner remarks: "Wie heute, so war schon damals gründliche, umfassende Bildung, eine gewisse Universalität der gelehrten Richtung, die beste Voraussetzung für den Beruf des Bibliothekars." Johann Christoph Wagenseil (1699) and Daniel Wilhelm Moller (1700-1712) were similar "polyhistor," and the latter began a "Standortskatalog" of the library. Johann David Köhler (1712-35) was "Herodotus II" in the Kaiserlich Akademie der Naturforscher and began an alphabetical catalog, lectured on the rare books in the library, and in 1721 began systematic instruction in bibliography ("Kenntnis des Schrifttums") and the use of libraries. To Christian Gottlieb Schwarz (1735-51), professor of rhetoric, poetry, and ethics and later of history, belongs the credit for completing the library catalogs; and the appointment, in 1748, of an assistant—Christoph Bonaventura Herzer—who had had previous experience in cataloging, may be taken as a sign of a developing profession. Incidentally, Herzer's completion of the *Realkatalog* in a year and a quarter indicated the usefulness of previous training. The demand that this catalog be made to include evaluations ("judicia") of the books is another interesting episode in the history of library cataloging.

The three succeeding librarians were distinguished scholars who served the library generously at salaries never exceeding twenty florins and did what they could to increase the library with funds growing less both in amount and in relative adequacy to the increasing publication of books and, especially, periodicals. In 1795 the libraries of Altdorf could still claim second place among German universities (Göttingen being first), but the decline of Altdorf moved steadily on toward the end which came to the University in 1809 and to the transfer of the libraries in 1818.

Brown University  
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HENRY BARTLETT VAN HOESEN

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*Logical aspects of educational measurement.* By OTHANEL SMITH. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. Pp. x+182. \$2.50.

This book is an outcome of the author's need to clarify the meaning of scientific measurement in terms of its fundamental concepts in order that he

might evaluate certain instruments of measurement widely used in education. In accomplishing this task he has made an original, timely, and valuable contribution to educational science. Although his book may find a rather limited audience, since it assumes some knowledge of technical developments in the field of achievement testing, it is sufficiently broad in its theoretical implications to be of interest to any intelligent reader who has kept abreast of current viewpoints and research in learning. The admirable clarity and economy with which the author expresses his ideas and the concise summaries at the close of each chapter should make his work intelligible even to the reader with little background in logic, mathematics, and scientific method.

The early chapters of the book are devoted to the historical background essential for the development of the author's major thesis. This material covers rather familiar ground in tracing the development of scientific method and measuring instruments in education. Two later chapters, on the logical foundations of measurement and the logical aspects of validity, continue to set the stage for the critical analysis of measuring instruments, which is his major purpose. This purpose is fulfilled in three closely reasoned chapters on the nature of the outcomes of learning—which present-day achievement tests are assumed to measure—and an analysis of the assumptions underlying the construction of these tests. A concluding chapter on the outlook of educational measurement raises some very fundamental questions, to which the author believes no final answer can be given. He attempts, however, to point out the most probable directions along which educational science may develop in the future.

The basic thesis which Professor Smith undertakes to prove is that the instruments of measurement so far available for use in education are of extremely doubtful validity when examined in the light of criteria inherent in the logic of measurement. He attributes this defect to a lack of understanding of the basic principles of measurement and a failure to satisfy the conditions of measurement essential to the construction of valid instruments. His analysis is limited to performance tests designed for measuring the level of achievement of skills, abilities, and understandings in the various subjects of instruction. He is primarily concerned with developmental tests and scales—because they are used most extensively in the measurement of learning and have been subjected to the most rigorous and prolonged experimentation. Quality scales are also examined, but tests designed to measure rate of performance are excluded.

It is his contention that the questionable validity of existing achievement tests accounts for the fact that almost three decades of experimental work in education have resulted in a disappointing failure to establish an adequate body of consistent and undisputed generalizations essential to the solution of basic problems in learning. The failure to develop valid instruments he attributes in large part to the limitations of the quantitative theory of learning, by which instruments used in educational research have been validated. Thus,

achievement tests fail to discriminate between outcomes of learning closely correlated with permanent values and activities of the educand and outcomes with so little relationship to these central values that their effect upon subsequent behavior is negligible. This violates the condition of measurement which demands that objects to be measured must be ordered in terms of some continuous property. Failure to measure qualitative distinctions among performances—in terms of underlying processes—thus means that validity has not been established.

Furthermore, the author contends that developmental tests used in education fail to satisfy the fundamental axioms of addition. Instead of employing experimental operations in attempting to establish equal units of measurement, an additive structure has been assumed to be established merely by definition and by statistical manipulations. The responses of an individual are numerative, not additive. The outcomes of learning may be qualitatively different from the summation of responses to isolated elements of subject matter.

As a result of his logical analysis of achievement tests, the author concludes that learning must be explored by a more fruitful type of intellectual analysis so that instruments may be based upon more adequate concepts than those of mere quantity. He shows that there is no reason why the properties dealt with could not admit of operations other than those now utilized. The organismic view of learning is contrasted in this respect with the quantitative theory, and some of the methodological implications of the organismic view are pointed out. The author believes that one of these theories must eventually prove itself the more fruitful, resulting in the rejection of the other, or else that the two points of view will be merged into some larger and broader theory.

Professor Smith hopes that his discussion of the fundamental principles of educational measurement will contribute toward a clarification of some of the problems of educational science. His hopes should be amply fulfilled.

ALICE I. BRYAN

*School of Library Service  
Columbia University*

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*The study hall in junior and senior high schools.* By HANNAH LOGASA. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. xiii+190. \$2.00.

*The study hall* by Hannah Logasa is a book of practical devices for managing the conventional study hall in the conventional school situation. While the writer recognizes the fact that study halls vary in purposes and problems with the philosophy and general character of the school, the main emphasis is given to the type of school in which fixed assignments and imposed discipline prevail. It is interesting to note that, in a list of the functions of the study hall, provision for students who want to work and who need a suitable

place for their purposes is not mentioned. The functions enumerated (chap. i) follow:

It provides a place where pupils may be scheduled during their regular vacant periods.

It takes care of pupils with irregular and special programs.

It helps correct irregularities in the functioning of the program.

It plays a part in the solution of the corridor problem.

The teacher who finds herself in charge of a hall maintained for such purposes will undoubtedly find helpful suggestions in the chapter on control and organization.

The discussion of methods for improving study habits deals with forms for recording achievement and attention, display of correct or desirable products, supervision of notebooks and note-taking, and means for diagnosing problem cases. Emphasis is placed upon the desirability of developing a sense of responsibility in pupils. The writer contrasts discipline superimposed by the teacher and pupil discipline. Attention is called to the need students have to carry on study apart from the teacher as a means for developing initiative and self-direction.

The book makes throughout a plea for adequate space and suitable equipment. One chapter is devoted to "Equipment and supplies" and outlines minimal essentials for a study room. The emphasis also appears elsewhere, the writer pointing out the absurdity of expecting students to work in an environment less suitable than the one in which they recite. Unfortunately, many administrators do not have this point of view.

Certain devices suggested will appear highly formal to many teachers: alphabetical seating, separation of boys and girls, permitting only one pupil at a time to visit the toilet. On the other hand, if the study hall is to reach the number suggested in one discussion—eight hundred—probably routine and police methods are essential. For a teacher who must manage such a group, discussion of methods of motivation, of studying individuals, and of supervising details of study seems wasted. Miss Logasa suggests that a maximum load for a study hall be twice the group allowed for any class in a given school.

The final chapter is devoted to a matter of especial interest to librarians: "The library study hall." Miss Logasa says: "There is one reason why the subject is so complicated. The combination would transfer the work involved in administering the study hall from the field of teaching to the field of librarianship." Librarians may be inclined to quarrel with a fellow-worker who does not consider the librarian a teacher. Some of us who are teaching in classes recognize in the librarian a most efficient fellow-instructor. The arguments against using the library as a place for sending students, regardless of their needs for anything but chairs and tables, seem to the present reviewer to outweigh those for the library study hall. Perhaps that is because of a deep-seated delight in a library as a place for reading the books which it supplies. The argument that through study-hall assignment the library reaches children

who would otherwise never see the place is a serious charge against the curriculum and teaching, which do not of themselves take children into the library frequently. Miss Logasa discusses the question impartially.

The study hall, taken as a whole, will probably be of most value to the beginning teacher. Supervising study halls is all too frequently assigned to the beginner, who approaches one of the most difficult tasks of the school without full awareness of the problem. The present volume gives a clear picture of the difficulties encountered, of the confusion in purposes and organization too frequently found, and of certain attempts to meet the problems. No satisfaction derived from the devices and methods presented should lead the reader to forget that Miss Logasa has given an honest but not too attractive picture of what, in too many schools, is falsely termed "study" hall.

LOU LA BRANT

Ohio State University

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*The English novel, 1740-1850: a catalogue including prose romances, short stories, and translations of foreign fiction.* By ANDREW BLOCK; with an Introduction by ERNEST A. BAKER. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. xi+367. £3. 3s. net.

The scope and authority of this admirable bibliography are sufficiently attested by the title, authorship, and the Introduction in which Professor Baker commends the author for having undertaken and completed a task so formidable and of such wide usefulness. That the work will be invaluable to librarians is obvious; but, even more, it facilitates the labors of the literary historian and opens up fields of research to the student. Innumerable forgotten authors are listed in its pages, and the titles of their works in themselves indicate the literary movements and trends of taste, the evolution and widening range of the novel as a literary form and as a social document. The novel of manners, the Gothic novel, the oriental novel, the historical novel, the Revolutionary novel, and all the rest of the types which developed in the hundred years subsequent to *Pamela*—all are here listed, whether the works of authors still remembered or the vaster number now forgotten but contributing to the evolution of this most popular and important of modern literary forms.

The reviewer, in checking names and titles known to him, could detect no omissions or errors. The book gives every evidence of the most scrupulous care and scholarship. Particularly commendable is the readable page with the names of authors and anonymous and pseudonymous titles, in their alphabetical arrangement, set in black letters. This list, in which full bibliographical information is conveyed, is supplemented by one hundred pages of cross-references in which all the works are listed in alphabetical order by title. Usefulness and attractiveness are seldom met with in happier combination.

CARL H. GRABO

University of Chicago



*The library and the radio.* By FAITH HOLMES HYERS. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xi+101. \$0.75.

Carl Milam, in his Preface to Faith Holmes Hyers' informational pamphlet, asserts that "librarians are interested in radio broadcasting." That statement, of course, may be taken for granted, as it might very well be said that there is hardly anyone today who is not interested in radio broadcasting. We cannot, of course, accuse Mr. Milam of uttering a truism, and therefore it can be assumed that he meant to imply that librarians are particularly interested in radio broadcasting because they feel that through this new means of communication they might open up another way of serving the public. After all, the library is one of the most useful of public servants, and librarians are constantly on the lookout for new ways of advancing their cause.

Mrs. Hyers, as chairman of the Library Broadcasting Committee of the American Library Association, has been giving a great deal of thought and attention to radio for a number of years. She was asked to undertake a study of how radio and libraries could best co-operate to the mutual good of the listener and the library.

One wishes that this excellent guide might have been published immediately after it was written, early in 1938. There is no business or industry today that changes so from month to month as does radio. It is a new industry, and the two decades in which it has been growing up cannot have been expected to stabilize its activities. Consequently, these years of growth have been years of experimentation; they have also been years of stabilizing relationships. During the first years much antagonism sprang up between the commercial broadcaster and the educator: each asserted unequivocally that he knew what the radio audience wanted, neither was willing to listen sympathetically to the other's point of view. Long hours—even years—were spent attempting to define the words "educational" and "radio education." Mrs. Hyers has sketched briefly those early beginnings, in an attempt to give a background to those who are interested in going farther into the whole question. Fortunately, most of the discord is past history, and one finds today educators and broadcasters sitting down at the conference table and working together at institutes in an endeavor to find the best ways of presenting educational or informational material over the air.

A good deal has been done, and the examples of program material which are given as illustrative are noteworthy. Mrs. Hyers points out how to go about it and the technique which must be acquired. She touches on the different forms which are used—such as the "University of Chicago round table," "America's town meeting of the air," commentators, etc.—and she gives excellent examples of the places in the United States where librarians are doing notable jobs in radio.

In addition, she states briefly the three means by which radio-library co-operation may be the most effective:

first, the advertising of selected programs; second, the display and provision of books, bulletins, pamphlets, and reprints of the radio talks, and other printed material which offer background or additional information; and, third, the encouragement of "listening rooms" in libraries or with library co-operation.

I cannot see how any librarian who is really interested in radio can help but gain great benefit from the information which Mrs. Hyers gives in the chapters that follow, in which she shows what methods can best be employed in working out each of these activities. Her whole conception of the accomplishments of the educator and the broadcaster, as listed in the well-thought-out Table of Contents, is indicative of the study and research which has gone into this comprehensive booklet.

I believe her answer to those in the library field who doubt the desirability of tying up with this new "instrument of culture" is especially worthy of quotation here. She says:

If librarians had the courage to put books on the air, and the ability to provide the books we recommend, we might achieve results. . . . But it is all too true that a recent appeal by certain broadcasters to librarians for a closer radio-library tieup brought some replies to the effect that under present conditions it was foolish and impossible to desire any stimulation of interest in current material, or even older books, as demands already far exceeded the library supply. On the acceptance or the rejection of this desirability rests the future of the relation between the broadcaster and the librarian.

Mrs. Hyers has done an exhaustive piece of research work; she has tapped the sources, which must have been hard to find, in an endeavor to give the librarians a practical source book on the art of building radio programs which will not only help further the work of libraries throughout the country but will stimulate the thinking of countless listeners.

JUDITH C. WALLER

*Educational Director, Central Division  
National Broadcasting Company  
Chicago*

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*Resources of southern libraries: a survey of facilities for research.* Edited by ROBERT B. DOWNS. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. xii+370. \$4.50.

This survey in a volume of nearly four hundred pages is an outgrowth of the activities of the A.L.A. Committee on Resources of Southern Libraries (organized in 1934). A grant from the General Education Board, which was made after a brief preliminary study had been issued in mimeographed form in 1935, made possible this report consisting of information gathered by regional chairmen and assistants under the direction of Mr. Robert B. Downs. The arrangement is by subjects that are usual in library classifications. There are twelve chapters, beginning with "Reference books, bibliography, and related material" and ending with "Technology."

As a reference book, this guide—fully indexed as it is—will be consulted

frequently and profitably. As a book to be read through at successive sittings, it offers most interesting, if somewhat disconnected, information and suggests the possibility of a regional bibliographical tour filled with delightful surprises. The present-day Dibdin, wandering through the South, might perhaps know in advance of such things as the collection of ships' logs in the Mariners' Museum at Norfolk, of the Moravian material in the possession of the Wachovia Historical Society at Winston-Salem, of the documentary material relating to the cattle industry at the University of Texas. But where, except from such a guide, could he easily learn, for example, of the treasures of the private library of J. C. Yonge in Pensacola, of the Sondley Library in Asheville, that the Stark Collection at the University of Texas is rich in literary manuscripts of well-known English authors, and that the Filson Club in Louisville has important files of photostatic reproductions of eighteenth-century Colonial newspapers?

This record reveals, as was expected, far too many gaps in holdings and the lack of much essential material even in the best-equipped southern libraries. Apparently there is but one set of the old *British Museum catalogue* in the South, no set anywhere of the Great Britain *Parliamentary papers* earlier than 1914. Extensive holdings of the publications of learned societies are generally not available. Although there has been evidence of local pride and zeal in the collection of material dealing with the history of southern states, not as much can be said for the collections on the history of Europe and other continents and especially for those dealing with the Middle Ages and ancient times.

On the other hand, the book undoubtedly does not do full justice to all libraries concerned, because there are unfortunate omissions in reporting. Generally speaking, there are hopeful indications of great progress; and in certain fields—notably on Latin-American conditions—the amount and importance of material available in libraries in Texas, Louisiana, North Carolina, and elsewhere is such as to call for praise. Similarly, the collections of certain Texas libraries in English literature are so unusual that they cannot be overlooked. There is evident a growing inclination to build up libraries which will help to develop the natural resources of the South—in agriculture generally; in chemistry notably at certain centers such as Rice Institute; in petroleum geology in important collections in Oklahoma, Texas, and Louisiana. Strangely, there is as yet no important southern textile collection.

The student of Negro history will not neglect the collections at Fisk University, Hampton Institute, and Atlanta University. The libraries of Oklahoma show vast unusual sources dealing with the lives of Indians. Everywhere there is manifest an interest in folk lore. There are interesting hints in southern collections of family migration—collected papers of one family in Virginia dealing with plantation life, collected papers of other members of the same family, at a later stage, dealing with ranch life in western Texas. There

are shown some strange inconsistencies—the best collection of French literature is not in Louisiana, as might be expected, but in North Carolina.

The chapters on manuscripts, newspapers, and general periodicals will probably be of most interest to scholars, since they reveal vast resources for research work which have been little used. The manuscript collections dealing with southern life are important in every state but have been most assiduously collected in North Carolina, Texas, Louisiana, and Alabama. Newspaper holdings are important—notably at the University of Texas and at Duke University. An interesting revelation is that some of the best files of newspapers in Arkansas and North Carolina are still in newspaper offices.

Apparently this work is the first of its kind attempting to list the library research material available in a large geographic area. It is to be hoped that other similar ventures will be undertaken elsewhere. The purposes of the survey, as specifically enumerated, have apparently been well carried out—namely, to provide a guide for the making of interlibrary loans, to assist scholars in their quests, to provide a basis for planned acquisition, to aid union catalogs, to locate little-known collections, to discover weaknesses, and to stimulate research collections. The book will be a ready aid to loan and reference librarians and a most useful check list for those who need to be reminded of desiderata.

ROBERT J. USHER

*Tulane University and Howard Memorial Library  
New Orleans*

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*Die Quellen der Hamburger Oper (1678–1738). Eine bibliographisch-statistische Studie zur Geschichte der ersten stehenden deutschen Oper.* VON WALTER SCHULZE. Hamburg-Oldenburg: Verlag von Gerhard Stalling AG, 1938. Pp. x+170 mit 4 tafeln.

This work on the sources of the Hamburg opera of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries is the fourth of a number of treatises, dealing with various aspects of culture, that have been issued by the Hansestadt Library. Dramatic music in Hamburg of the rococo period has been generously discussed by a number of German authorities. As early as 1878, Ludwig Meinardus had investigated it and had set forth his findings in *Rückblicke auf die Anfänge der deutschen Oper in Hamburg*. Chrysander covered the same period here under review in articles published in the *Allgemeine musikalische Zeitung* in 1878; and there were treatises on the same subject by Lindner, Kleefeld, Sittard, and others.

If it would seem that Walter Schulze has performed a work of supererogation in *Die Quellen der Hamburger Oper*, it may be said on his behalf that he has set forth facts that hitherto had escaped previous investigators—facts that he dug out laboriously from the archives of the Hamburg Library, which is

rich in music and documentary material of the days in which German opera virtually began. Yet, as Gustav Wahl, director of the Hamburg Library, remarks in his Preface to Walter Schulze's book, it was the fate of the library to lose not a little of its music and many of its volumes when, having wandered away from home, they found resting places in other institutions. This circumstance led Schulze's investigations into other cities.

The author considers critically the contributions made to the treatment of his subject by earlier writers, some of whom, he states, regarded it from a one-sided point of view and from nineteenth-century preoccupations. "The Hamburg opera," he writes, "was the last great manifestation of that universal Renaissance art that began in Italy and spread over the whole of Europe." He gives as his reasons for the importance of the Hamburg institution the presentation of entirely new ideas for the stage, the setting-up of religious music-drama and of folk opera, the splendor of decorative stage pictures, the progressive spirit in which the whole was organized. "Not least," he adds, "was the worth of the purely musical factors of the enterprise"; and he points out that the works of Hamburg composers—those of Johann Wolfgang Franck, of Johann Siegmund Kusser, and, above all, of Reinhard Keiser and Georg Philipp Telemann—were played and sung all over Germany, and their influence upon German operatic art in many ways was made manifest.

Schulze may be right in believing that modern musicologists, like Hugo Leichtentritt (now on the Harvard University faculty), Lindner, and Kretzschmar, have not done full justice to such Hamburg opera composers as Keiser and Telemann. It is certain that the musical world in general knows little or nothing of their music, which would be well worth occasional presentation. It is interesting in this connection to recall that the music faculty of the University of Chicago gave a performance last April of Telemann's little intermezzo, *Pimpinone*, which originally was produced at Hamburg in 1725. The work, however, had been rescued from the tomb of time at Erlangen in 1926, and Telemann's *Socrates* had similarly been revived at Crefeld in 1934.

Schulze bewails the circumstance that so much of the literature of the Hamburg school rests upon the quicksands of uncertainty. He states that there is in the Hansestadt Library much material of the first importance that, generally unknown and unstudied, could throw a vivid light upon Hamburg's operatic history. Other collections could assist in the study of eighteenth-century opera in North Germany—notably those in the Prussian State Library at Berlin and the Mecklenburg Library in Schwerin. Schulze also draws attention to the fact that the Library of Congress at Washington, D.C., is to be numbered among the institutions in possession of musical scores and text-books that would repay investigation.

In the second part of his study Schulze devotes himself to a consideration of the texts, the scores, and the collections of arias of works that were produced

in the theater of the Hamburg Gänsemarkt between 1678 and 1738—productions that numbered some two hundred and fifty operas. The composers of the Hamburg operas were many, but most of them have long been forgotten. At least three—Handel, Keiser, and Telemann—have survived the disintegrating processes of time; and Schulze devotes a large part of his study to their works. Keiser, in his own day, was one of the most renowned of Germany's musical creators. He was not a great composer—often, indeed, he was careless and uninspired—but there was no doubt about his industry, and at least half of the Hamburg scores came from his pen. Schulze considers at considerable length Keiser's career and works, and he also gives critical discussion to the operas of Telemann and Handel. Handel spent three years of his earlier musical career at Hamburg, where he officiated as harpsichordist and composer at the opera. His first dramatic composition, *Almira*, was produced there in 1705; and, as he departed for Italy (and later went to Hanover and London), his direct connection with the Hamburg opera ceased in 1707. Yet, as Schulze points out, the composer of *Almira* was not left unrepresented on the Hamburg stage, for certain of his London operas were performed there in the second and third decades of the eighteenth century—with additions made by Mattheson, however.

At the end of his study the author provides a valuable Index to the collection of texts of Hamburg operas and the libraries in which they are to be found. Of these, 148 belonged to the collection of opera books made by Albert Schatz and purchased by the Library of Congress. A similar list of scores is also provided; nor should there be left unmentioned facsimiles of the autographed pages of manuscripts by Keiser, Mattheson, and Telemann.

FELIX BOROWSKI

Northwestern University

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*Hindenburg-Bibliographie: Verzeichnis der Bücher und Zeitschriftenaufsätze von und über den Reichspräsidenten Generalfeldmarschall von Hindenburg.* Bearbeitet von der Deutschen Bücherei. Mit einem Geleitwort des Generalfeldmarschalls VON MACKENSEN. Leipzig: Verlag Bibliographisches Institut AG, 1938. Pp. viii+146. Rm. 15.

This bibliography of books and articles (in German only) was presented in manuscript form to Hindenburg on his last birthday, October 2, 1933; after his death a number of appreciations were added, making a total of 3,528 items. There are seven parts: Hindenburg's family; his life; his activity as soldier and president of the Reich; his writings (chiefly introductions to books by others and speeches); poems, legends, and anecdotes about the man; posthumous notices; and miscellaneous. The items in each section are arranged alphabetically by authors but are unfortunately not numbered, and there are

no cross-references, these being omitted because the Index is by subjects as well as by authors. The Introduction, by Field Marshal von Mackensen, consists of a single sentence praising Hindenburg's "soldatische Tugend und echte Frömmigkeit."

BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT

*University of Chicago*

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*The Scandinavian states and the League of Nations.* By S. SHEPARD JONES. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1939. Pp. xiii+298. \$3.00.

One who is somewhat familiar with the northern countries of Europe—with the people, their language, and culture—is immediately struck, on opening this volume, by the author's intimate knowledge of the history, government relations, and language of the three countries with which he deals. Ample evidence of this is found in the first chapter. That statesmen, members of the academic circles, and also businessmen in these smaller countries are, as a general rule, familiar with one or more foreign language—particularly English, German, and French—is a matter of common knowledge. As citizens of a small country surrounded by large and powerful neighbors with whom they must have constant dealings, this is to be expected. On the other hand, it is rather unusual to find a writer—particularly an American or Englishman—who is familiar with the Norse languages.

In his investigations the author has been assisted by the Nobel Institute of Oslo. The present work is based on his doctoral dissertation written at Oxford University under the direction of Sir Alfred Zimmern. Not only has he profited from access to the resources of the national and legislative libraries of the three countries, the Bodleian, and the League of Nations Library, but he has also consulted with many of the leading men of the Scandinavian countries, particularly with those who, in some official capacity, have been connected with the League—e.g., Hambro, Lange, Otto Johansson, etc.

The use of the terms "Scandinavia" and "Scandinavians" to include also Denmark may be open to criticism, but it is convenient and saves much repetition. The informed reader will welcome especially—as the literature in English is somewhat meager—the excellent exposition of that movement originating around 1850 with which men like Oehlenschlaeger, Gruntvig, Ibsen, Björnson, etc., were associated, which has usually been referred to as "Pan-Scandinavianism."

The analysis of the feelings of both Norwegians and Swedes immediately after the dissolution of the union in 1905 also bears evidence of careful and exhaustive study of contemporary sources. That Swedish government officials and certain members of the aristocracy resented the dissolution, and particularly the treaty of 1907, through which the integrity of Norway was guaranteed by Great Britain, Germany, France, and Russia, is no doubt true. A word might have been added, however, regarding the sentiment among the



middle and lower classes. In this connection the reviewer may be permitted to refer to a visit to Sweden in September, 1907, which he recalls most vividly. On leaving Oslo, he had been warned by his brother and other friends—some of them government officials—not to speak Norwegian in Stockholm but to use Swedish or English. After various attempts at Swedish, which generally elicited the query, "Is the gentleman perchance a Finn?" he gave it up in disgust and reverted to Norwegian. At no time in his association with members of the academic, middle, and lower classes did he note the slightest resentment toward Norway or the Norwegians. Today certainly it is generally conceded that at no time during the last thousand years have the relations between the two Scandinavian nations been more cordial than now.

Already in 1905 this feeling was aptly portrayed by the Swedish poet, Osian-Nilsson, when he wrote: "Låt Normannen gå hvor Normannen vil og ved Gud ei slår han sin port igjen, når handen klappar i nöd på fjellet" (in free translation: "Let the Norwegian go where the Norwegian wills, and by God his gate will not stay barred when in our darkest hour the signal for aid is sounded"). The author's exposition of the feelings and sympathies of the three nations during the World War will be read with much interest by those who lived through that period and, especially, by those who saw something of the Scandinavian countries during the war.

In 1870-71 the sympathies in all three countries were overwhelmingly in favor of the French. By 1914, however, there had been some change, even in Norway. The reviewer spent the months of July-October, 1914, in Norway and Sweden. In Norway it was obvious that, while a majority sympathized with the Allies, many influential men appeared to favor Germany and Austria. As for Sweden, he need only recall a night spent in the little village of Mellerud. News had just arrived of the great victory of Hindenburg over the Russians at Tannenberg and the Masurian Lakes, and all night groups of young men—many of them university students home for a holiday—paraded the streets singing patriotic songs and "Deutschland, Deutschland über alles." A few days later, in Uppsala, he was present at a luncheon given by an old friend and colleague, Axel Andersson, chief librarian of the University Library. Here conversation naturally turned to the war, and Andersson said: "We have 600,000 of the best soldiers in Europe. They should be sufficient to occupy a million Russians and thus relieve pressure on the German east front." A member of the historical faculty present expressed the opinion, however—shared by the great majority in attendance—that they had reason to be thankful for every additional day that Sweden was able to preserve its neutrality.

In the succeeding chapters the part played by the Scandinavian nations in the preliminary discussions, which in time had much to do with the final organization of the League, is well presented. So, also, is the feeling of apprehension and disappointment engendered by the exclusive attitude of the Al-

lied Powers during and immediately after the peace conference, when the neutrals were given the impression by the Allied Powers, "of being compelled to wait on the door mat, until the great powers, after some undefined period of approval, found them worthy of sharing the benefits of the League."

The account of the deliberations of the legislative assemblies of the three countries which led to their entrance into the League is illuminating. Take, as an instance, the resolution introduced by the Socialist party in the Norwegian Storting (cf. p. 74), in which they assert that

the Storting cannot give its consent to Norway's adhesion to the covenant of the League of Nations in its present form, but the Storting declares that Norway is ready to collaborate in the creation of a League of Nations founded on the following principles:

1. That all states be able to adhere without hindrance and become members of the League.
2. That war be abolished as a means of settling international conflicts. All conflicts which cannot be settled by direct negotiations between the parties, or by some other means through the mediation of the League, ought to be settled ultimately by a permanent international court of arbitration.
3. Compulsory military service ought to be abolished and general disarmament ought to be proceeded to.

The forward-looking men who had the courage to sponsor this resolution were doomed to disappointment, as it was defeated by a vote of 103 to 17. The final vote on entrance into the League was 100 to 20. Among those voting "Nay" was Hambro—later destined to take an important part in the work of the League. In the Swedish Riksdag the vote was: second chamber—152 for, 67 against, entrance; first chamber—86 for, 47 against. Denmark had previously voted unanimously in favor of entrance; but, as the author states, the vote showed that many members must have been absent or abstained from voting.

In Part II, where the organization of the League is dealt with, the role played by representatives of the Scandinavian countries—especially Nansen and Branting—in securing the admission of Germany and the other defeated parties is well portrayed. That men like Branting, Nansen, Lange, Munch, Michelet, Bachlund, Zahle, Undén, Oldenburg, etc., did their utmost to bring the question of disarmament before the League goes without saying. Unfortunately, their efforts met with a lukewarm reception on the part of the Great Powers, which dominated the Council; and the result of the ill-fated Disarmament Conference, from which the smaller nations had expected so much, is now a matter of history.

The position of Sweden in the Åland question is highly commended by the author. Here, as at Carlstadt in 1905, Sweden gave proof of a sincere desire to promote peace even at great sacrifice to her own interests. When the Italo-Ethiopian conflict began in 1935, the Scandinavian states stood ready to "go the limit" in the imposition of sanctions on the aggressor. The ill-fated Hoare-Laval plan of December, 1935, however, removed any hopes that the smaller

states might have entertained of any effective interference by the League's most powerful members. Since that time the prestige of the League has steadily declined, and today no one is able to say whether or not it is destined in the future to have any appreciable influence on the settlement of conflicts between nations.

The Bibliography and Index—so often open to severe criticism in books of this kind—are well done and deserve commendation for accuracy and clearness. The work, as a whole, forms a valuable contribution to the historical literature on the Scandinavian nations.

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## BOOK NOTES

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*The centennial exhibit of the Duke University Library consisting of material from the George Washington Flowers Memorial Collection of books and documents relating to the history and literature of the South: April 5-June 5, 1939.* Durham, N.C.: Duke University, 1939. Pp. 60.

As a part of its centennial celebration, Duke University is exhibiting some of the materials dealing with history and literature from its George Washington Flowers Memorial Collection. This pamphlet constitutes the catalog or guide to that exhibit. It contains a brief statement of the circumstances under which the collection was formed; descriptions of the several items on display which deal with wars, politics, literature, religion, agriculture, transportation and industry, and "aspects of life in the South." It closes with a brief history of Duke University. There are sixteen full-page illustrations which, with brief excerpts from the documents, form the most valuable part of the catalog. A surprisingly large number of the important statesmen, soldiers, and literary men of the South are represented in the exhibit.

*Compounding in the English language: a comparative review of variant authorities with a rational system for general use and a comprehensive alphabetic list of compound words.* By ALICE MORTON BALL. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. x+226. \$2.50.

If Miss Ball's book be accepted as an authority on compounding—and it might well be—she has performed a distinct service to writers, editors, typesetters, proofreaders, and everyone else having to do with the written or printed word.

Miss Ball drew up her first system of compounding when she was in charge of general publications for the Division of International Law of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. She became a member of the Departmental Advisory Board for the revision of the *United States Government Printing Office style manual* for 1933 and later a co-author of the *Style manual of the Department of State* for 1937. The present volume is the outcome of the work on these two manuals.

Beginning with a discussion of the rules laid down by the various authorities—such as the leading dictionaries, encyclopedias, grammars, and style manuals—Miss Ball goes on to develop "a rational system" of compounding which she expounds in detail under the headings: "Words preferably not compounded," "Words properly compounded," "Hyphenated compounds," "Solid compounds," "Derivatives of compound words," "Elliptical compounds," "Scientific and technical terms," and "Prefixes, suffixes, and combining forms." This is supplemented by an alphabetic list of compound words which occupies nearly one-half of the book and is especially helpful, a list of the authorities cited, and the Index.

*The League of Nations Library.* Geneva: League of Nations, Information Section, 1938. Pp. 45.

This booklet presents detailed information about the League of Nations Library—its role and purpose, its history, collections, catalogs, various categories of printed matter received and sorted by the library, its staff, and descriptions and illustrations of its premises and various rooms. Regulations governing the use of the library and plans of the ground, first, and third floors are also given.

*Library literature, 1938: an author and subject index-digest to current books, pamphlets and periodical literature relating to the library profession.* Edited by MARIAN SHAW. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xix+524. Sold on service basis.

A new feature of the 1938 volume of *Library literature* is the inclusion of Master's theses from the University of California School of Librarianship, the University of Chicago Graduate Library School, the Columbia University School of Library Service, and the University of Illinois Library School. In addition to library periodicals, the present volume indexes about 320 articles of professional interest that appeared in general periodicals and 361 books and pamphlets. Eight periodical publications which appeared during 1938 and 10 not indexed in previous editions are included.

*Public administration organizations: a directory, 1938-1939.* Edited by ROBERT M. PAIGE. Chicago: Public Administration Clearing House, 1938. Pp. 184.

This is the fourth biennial edition of this useful directory of voluntary and unofficial organizations working in the general field of public administration and in related fields in the United States and Canada. Nearly two thousand organizations are listed, with the following information for each: addresses, names of principal officers, summary of activities, affiliations, list of periodical publications, and brief description of other publications. A classified section enables the user to identify the organizations working in any particular field. The directory will be an important item in reference collections and an indispensable tool for libraries that are interested in building up and maintaining collections in government and public administration.

*Reference books of 1935-1937: an informal supplement to "Guide to reference books."* Sixth edition. By ISADORE GILBERT MUDGE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 69. \$0.90.

Once more Miss Mudge, the reference librarian of Columbia University, has given us one of her invaluable surveys of current reference books. This volume covers the books published in 1935, 1936, and 1937. She lists about five hundred books of which about one-half are entirely new publications and the rest are continuations of publications mentioned in the sixth edition of her *Guide to reference books*.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

The following publications have been received at the office of the Library quarterly:

- The anaerobic bacteria and their activities in nature and disease: a subject bibliography*, Vol. I: *Chronological author index*. By ELIZABETH MCCOY and L. S. McCLUNG. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1939. Pp. xxiii+295.
- The anaerobic bacteria and their activities in nature and disease: a subject bibliography*, Vol. II: *Subject index*. By ELIZABETH MCCOY and L. S. McCLUNG. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1939. Pp. xi+602.
- The bible of mankind*. Compiled and edited by MIRZA AHMAD SOHRAB. New York: Universal Publishing, 1939. Pp. xxx+743. \$5.00.
- The bibliographic index: a cumulative bibliography of bibliographies, 1938*. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. ix+344. Sold on service basis.
- Books you'll enjoy: an annotated guide for readers of from twelve to eighteen years*. By MURIEL STEEL; Foreword by J. M. MITCHELL; Introduction by W. C. BERWICK SAYERS. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. 103. 5s. net.
- The case for experience rating in unemployment compensation and a proposed method*. By HERMAN FELDMAN and DONALD M. SMITH. ("Industrial relations monographs," No. 1.) New York: Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1939. Pp. viii+66 (paper cover). \$1.00.
- A comparative study of cataloging rules based on the Anglo-American code of 1908: with comments on the rules and on the prospects for a further extension of international agreement and co-operation*. By J. C. M. HANSON. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xiv+144. \$2.00.
- The coquette; or, the history of Eliza Wharton*. By Hannah Webster Foster. Reproduced from the original edition of 1797, with an Introduction by HERBERT ROSS BROWN. ("Publication," No. 46 of the Facsimile Text Society.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. xx+facsim. 260. \$2.60.
- Costumes and ideologies*. By HILAIRE HILER. (Reprinted from *Bibliography of costume*.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xxxix.
- Current issues in library administration: papers presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 1-12, 1938*. Edited with an Introduction by CARLETON B. JOECKEL. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xii+392. \$2.00.

- Early Catholic Americana: a list of books and other works by Catholic authors in the United States, 1729-1830.* By WILFRID PARSONS, S.J. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xxv+282. \$10.
- Edward Moxon, publisher of poets.* By HAROLD G. MERRIAM. ("Columbia University studies in English and comparative literature," No. 137.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. ix+223. \$2.75.
- Gandhi triumphant! The inside story of the historic fast.* By HARIDAS T. MUZUMDAR. New York: Universal Publishing, 1939. Pp. 104. \$1.00.
- Guide for the description and evaluation of research materials.* Edited by ROBERT B. DOWNS. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. [iv]+49 (mimeographed). \$0.50.
- Guide to technical literature: introductory chapters and engineering.* By A. D. ROBERTS. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. viii+279. 15s. net.
- A guide to the encyclicals of the Roman pontiffs from Leo XIII to the present day (1878-1937).* Compiled by SISTER M. CLAUDIA CARLEN. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. 247 (photolithographed). \$2.00.
- The history of history, Vol. I.* Rev. ed. of *An introduction to the history of history.* By JAMES T. SHOTWELL. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. xii+407. \$3.75.
- Housing for the machine age.* By CLARENCE ARTHUR PERRY. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 261. \$2.50.
- Joseph Conrad.* Par RAYMOND LAS VERGNAS. ("Les grands écrivains étrangers.") Paris: H. Didier, 1939. Pp. 234.
- Justa Edovardo King.* Reproduced from the original edition, 1638, with an Introduction by ERNEST C. MOSSNER. ("Publication," No. 45 of the Facsimile Text Society.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. xiv+facsim. 71. \$1.60.
- Knowledge for what? The place of social science in American culture.* By ROBERT S. LYND. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1939. Pp. x+268. \$2.50.
- The letters of Ralph Waldo Emerson, Vol. I: 1813-1835; Vol. II: 1836-1841; Vol. III: 1842-1847; Vol. IV: 1848-1855; Vol. V: 1856-1867; Vol. VI: 1868-1881.* Edited by RALPH L. RUSK. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. lxi+458+471+462+541+546+633. \$30.
- Library local collections.* By W. C. BERWICK SAYERS. ("Practical library handbooks," No. 7.) London: Allen & Unwin, 1938. Pp. 128. 5s. net.
- A list of French prose fiction from 1700 to 1750, with a brief Introduction.* By S. PAUL JONES. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xxxii+150. \$3.50.
- Modern drama, 1900-1938: a select list of plays published since 1900, and of works on dramatic theory and other related subjects.* London: Library Association, County Libraries' Section, 1939. Pp. v+77.
- The organization of knowledge in libraries and the subject-approach to books.* 2d ed. rev. and partly rew. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xvi+347.



- Periodicals for small and medium-sized libraries.* 7th ed. enl. and rew. By FRANK K. WALTER. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 93. \$0.75.
- Pertinent questions and answers pertaining to professional education, examination and licensure.* By LESTER K. ADE. ("Bulletin," No. 600.) Harrisburg: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction, 1939. Pp. 49.
- Publicity primer. An abc of "telling all" about the public library.* 2d ed. rev. By MARIE D. LOIZEAUX. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. 72 (paper cover). \$0.60.
- Radio in education.* By FEDERAL WRITERS' PROJECT, WORKS PROGRESS ADMINISTRATION, COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA. Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1939. Pp. [viii]+47.
- The rise of American naval power, 1776-1918.* By HAROLD and MARGARET SPROUT. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1939. Pp. [xii]+398. \$3.75.
- Selected references in education, 1938.* ("Supplementary educational monographs," No. 47 [reprinted from the *School review* and the *Elementary school journal* for January to December, 1938].) Chicago: Department of Education of the University of Chicago, 1939. Pp. x+221. \$0.90 postpaid.
- Small public library buildings: prepared for the A.L.A. Committee on Library Architecture and Building Planning.* By JOHN ADAMS LOWE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 47. \$1.50.
- Social work in greater Cleveland: how public and private agencies are serving human needs.* By LUCIA JOHNSON BING. Cleveland: Welfare Federation of Cleveland, 1938. Pp. 255. \$1.25.
- Studies in the economy of the maritime provinces.* By S. A. SAUNDERS; with a Preface by H. A. INNIS. ("Studies of the Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University.") Toronto: Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., 1939. Pp. xii+266. \$2.00.
- Survey of libraries in Canada, 1936-38 (being Part III of the "Biennial survey of education in Canada, 1936-38").* Ottawa, Canada: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1939. Pp. 74. \$0.35.
- Three Americanists.* By RANDOLPH G. ADAMS. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. Pp. 101. \$1.50.
- Three thousand books for a public library: some significant and representative works for basic stock.* Compiled by W. A. MUNFORD. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. 188. 7s. 6d. net.
- The tragedy of Julius Caesar by William Shakespeare.* Edited by GEORGE LYMAN KITTREDGE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1939. Pp. xix+209. \$0.85.
- The tragedy of Macbeth by William Shakespeare.* Edited by GEORGE LYMAN KITTREDGE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1939. Pp. xx+254. \$0.85.
- Women at work: a tour among careers.* New York: New York Career Tours, 1939. Pp. 96. \$1.00 (plus \$0.10 mailing cost per copy in New York region, \$0.15 elsewhere in the U.S., and \$0.30 foreign).

